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~ C.C. LONG ~

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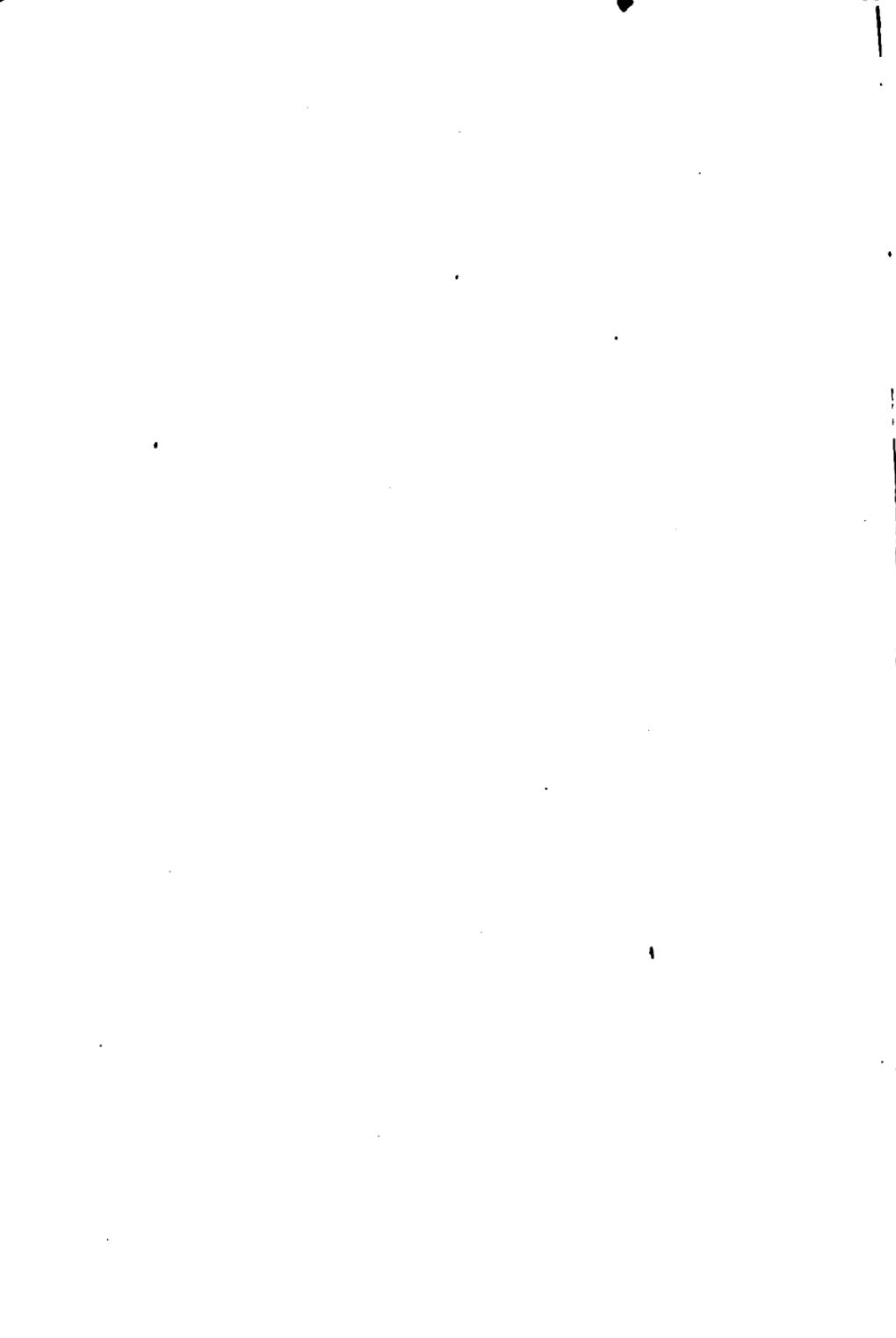
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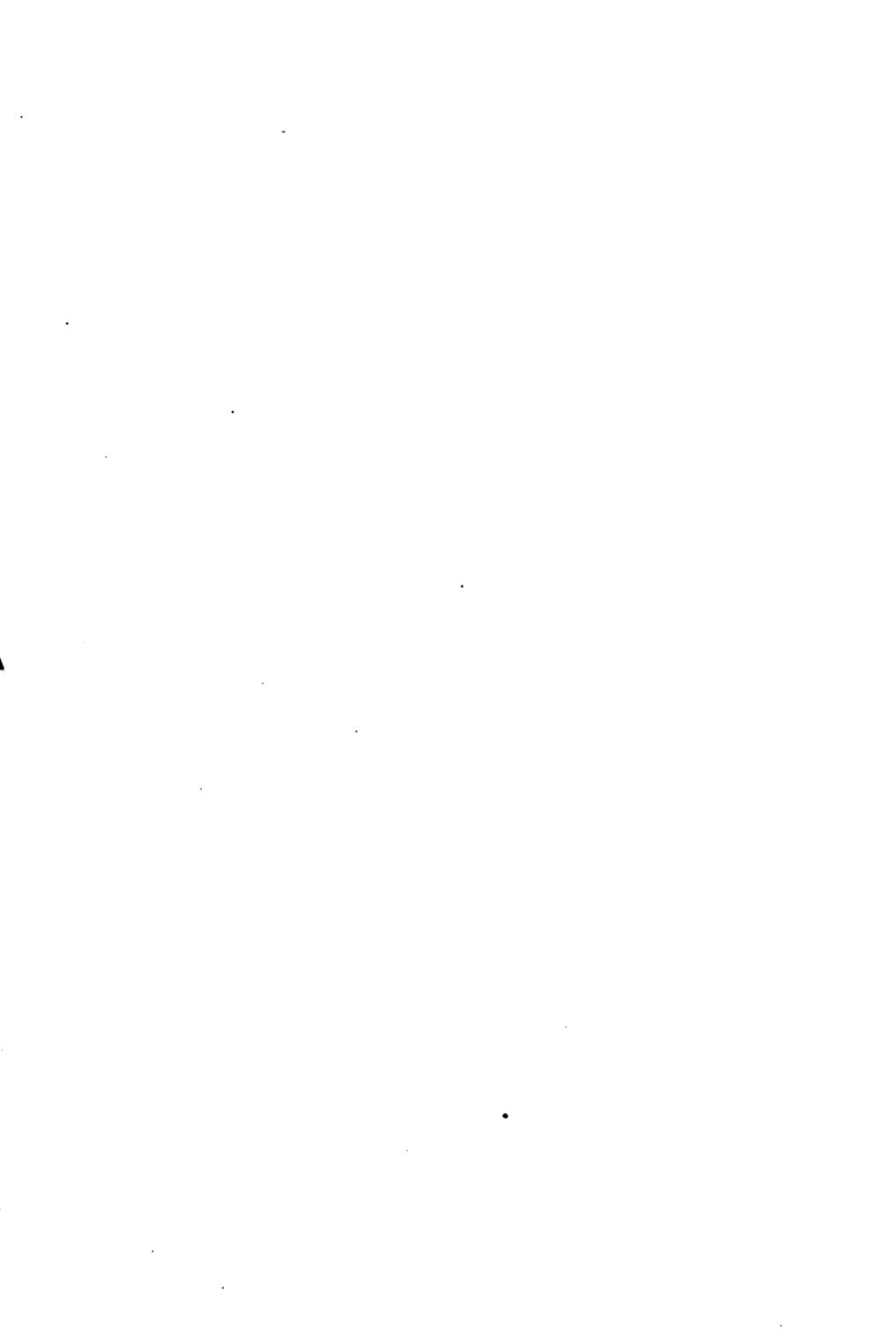


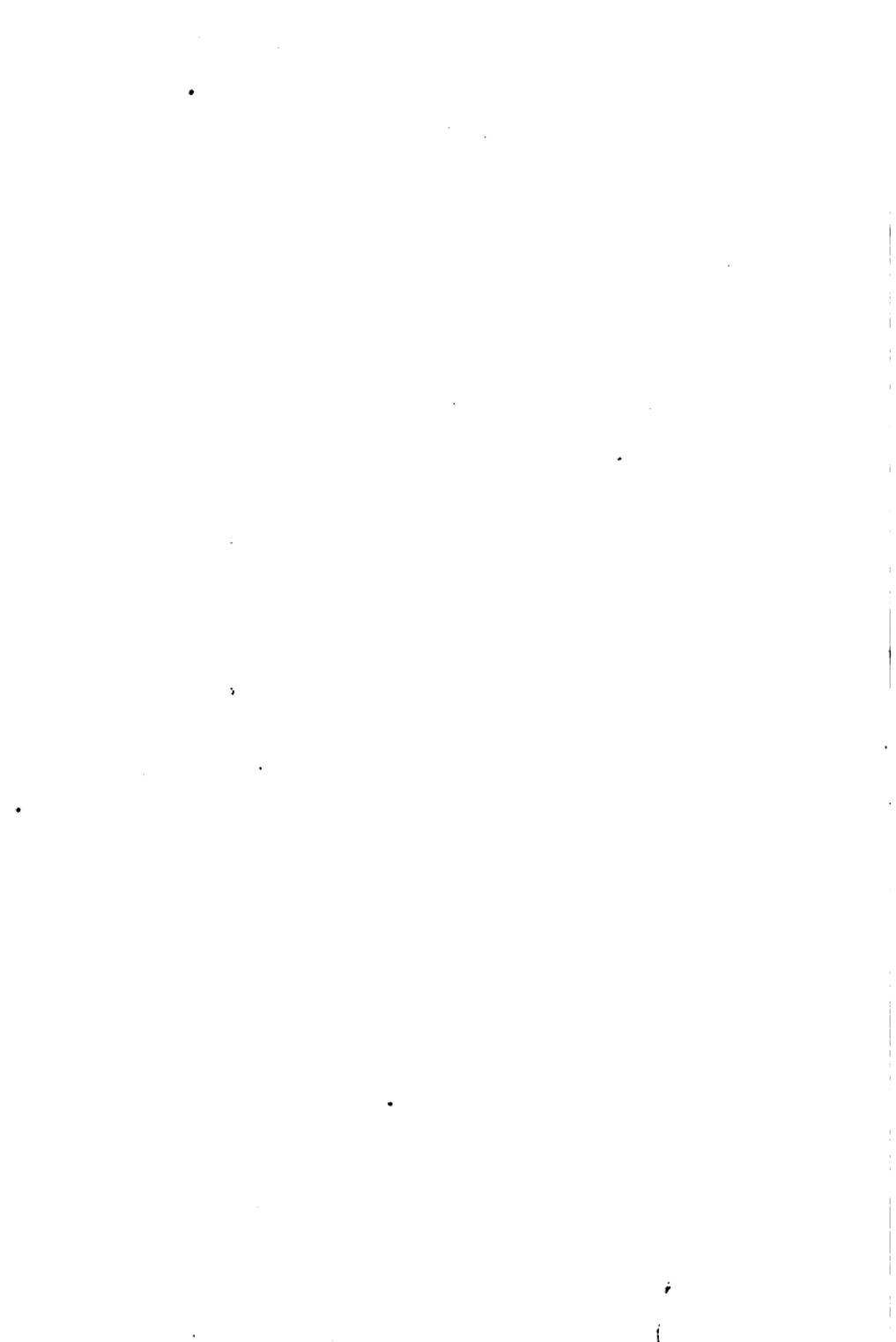
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LESSONS IN ENGLISH.

GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

BY

C. C. LONG, PH.D.



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E-P 14

PREFACE.

THE office of grammar in the elementary school is not so much to teach accuracy of speech, or of composition, as to aid learners to better understand what they read, and to give them the power to master the exact thought of any sentence. Besides this, it ought to be so taught as to develop and strengthen some special mental faculty.

The method of this book recognizes the laws of mental growth and discipline. By orderly questioning in teaching the subjects, the pupil is induced to perform some mental effort—to examine, to compare, to classify, to reach conclusions. When, as a result of observation and experience, the full import of a definition or rule is thoroughly understood, then, and not till then, is he required to commit it to memory.

Only the essentials of English grammar, free from unnecessary technicalities, are presented. The relations of words, phrases, and sentences to one another are taught by an easy, natural, and progressive method of analysis.

As practice in composition is one of the best means of teaching the use of neat and correct expression, the writing of short, simple sentences is begun at the very outset. If, in addition to this, pupils are required to write every exercise in whatever branch of study, and to keep a constant guard against inaccuracies in language, spelling, punctuation, writing, etc., they will gradually and incidentally master the mechanical difficulties of composition.

CINCINNATI, *May, 1890.*

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LESSONS IN ENGLISH.

THE SENTENCE.

Lesson 1.—*The Sentence.*

The horse runs.

The girl sings.

A fish swims.

When we say "The horse runs," what is it we are thinking of? (A horse.) What do we say about the horse? (He runs.)

If you say "The girl sings," of what are you thinking? What do you say about the girl?

"A fish swims." What am I thinking about? What do I say about it?

When we put words together to say what we think, we make a *sentence*.

Words may be arranged in a group so as to have some meaning, and yet this group may not fully express a *thought*. For example:—

on the hill.

to the brook.

birds singing.

Such groups of words are called *phrases*.

A phrase is a group of words rightly used, but not expressing a complete thought.

Lesson 2.—*Write sentences telling your thoughts about,—*

rain	gold	fire	stars
book	knife	trees	horse
flowers	paper	garden	school

Use these words in telling your thoughts about different things:—

bark	fly	cry	sleep
work	took	fades	laugh
shine	think	walks	twinkle

What do you call the groups of words you have written? Why?

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

Lesson 3.—*Kinds of Sentences.*

The rainbow has seven colors.
 Is the snow deep in the valley?
 Come to me immediately.
 How sadly the wind moans!

Which sentence states or *declares*? What kind of a sentence is it? (It is a declarative sentence.)

Which asks a question or *interrogates*? What kind of a sentence is it? (Interrogative.)

Which sentence commands? What may we call it? (Imperative.)

Which expresses surprise? What may we call it? (Exclamatory.)

What kind of a sentence is each line of the following stanza?—

O call my brother back to me!
I can not play alone.
The summer comes with flower and bee:
Where is my brother gone?

Now name the four kinds of sentences.
Which kinds are closed with a period?
Which kind with an interrogation point?
Which with an exclamation point?

Lesson 4.—Write a declarative sentence about each of the following:—

grass	trees	clouds	river
a fire	water	vacation	summer

Change each declarative sentence you have written to an interrogative.

Write an imperative sentence expressing the command of a teacher to his pupils.

Write a sentence asking a favor of your father.

Write an exclamatory sentence about,—

fine music.	very clear water.
a very tall tree.	a fragrant flower.
a very warm day.	a beautiful sunset.

Change a declarative sentence to an interrogative; to an imperative; to an exclamatory.

CLASSES OF WORDS.

1. THE NOUN.

Lesson 5.—*The Noun.*

John has a large dog.

I visited New-York and Boston.

Sugar and tobacco are raised in Cuba.

How many words in the first sentence are used as names? Which is the name of a *person*? Which of an *animal*?

How many words in the second sentence are names? Mention two names of *places*.

In the third sentence find two names of *things*.

The words *John*, *dog*, *New-York*, *Boston*, *sugar*, *tobacco* are names, either of a person, animal, place, or thing.

Because the word *noun* means *name*, all such words are called *nouns*.*

Lesson 6.—Select the words which are nouns from the following sentences. How do you know they are nouns?—

Steel is harder than iron.

Coffee grows in Arabia and Brazil.

The tanner prepares leather from hides.

* TO THE TEACHER.—Let the pupil learn no definitions till he can make his own.

Teachers should be careful not to allow pupils to confound words with what they stand for—the *name* with the *thing*. It is the word, the *name*, which is the *noun*,—not that which the name denotes.

A tree has roots, branches, and a trunk.
 Parrots are brought from Africa by sailors.
 Rain consists of drops that fall from the clouds.
 New-York is the largest city in the United States.
 The whale, the seal, and the walrus are found in the Arctic Ocean.

He spoke of the grass and flowers and trees,
 Of the singing birds and humming bees.

Lesson 7.—*Select the words which are nouns from the following stanzas:—*

The lark is up to meet the sun,
 The bee is on the wing ;
 The ant its labor has begun,
 The woods with music ring.

I like to see the daisy,
 And the buttercup once more ;
 The primrose, and the cowslip, too,
 And every pretty flower.

Lesson 8.—*Write the names of,—*

Five pupils in your class.

Five animals we might see in a walk in the country.

Five places you have seen, or heard of.

Five things in the school-room.

Write a list of nouns which shall include the name of a continent, island, peninsula, cape, isthmus ; and of an ocean, sea, bay, gulf, river.

2. THE PRONOUN.

Lesson 9.—*The Pronoun.*

James told James's mother that James would obey ; but James soon forgot James's promise and went to the pond.

Chicago is a large city ; Chicago is situated on Lake Michigan.

The tree is old, and the tree's branches are dead.

Read the first sentence. Does it sound well? What makes the sentence awkward? (The frequent repetition of the word *James*.) How may the repetition be avoided?

Express the sentence in a more agreeable way. You have used *his* and *he* in the place of what? (For the *name* of the person.)

Read the second sentence. What word is repeated? Substitute for *Chicago* a word that will improve the sentence. The word *it* has been used instead of what? (The *name* of a place.)

Read the third sentence. What word is repeated? Use another word to avoid unpleasant repetition. You have used *its* in the place of what? (The *name* of a thing.)

The words *his*, *he*, *it*, and *its* have been used for the names of persons, places, and things.

As all names are nouns, they have been used in the place of nouns.

Because they stand for nouns, they are called *pronouns*.

Lesson 10.—*In the following sentences find the pronouns and tell what noun each takes the place of:—*

Charles is kind to his sisters.

I will invite my friends to go with me.

Mary lost her doll, but she soon found it.

Harry loves his mother, and she loves him.

My father saw the horses, but he did not like them.

Dear mother, how pretty

The moon looks to-night!

She was never so cunning before;

Her two little horns

Are so sharp and so bright,

I hope she'll not grow any more.

Lesson 11.—*Use the following pronouns as the first word of a sentence:—*

I	we	you	she
they	he	it	

3. THE ADJECTIVE.

Lesson 12.—*The Adjective.*

A *good* child studies.

A *large* horse works.

A *diligent* farmer plows.

Who has seen a child study? What kind of a child was it? (A *good* child, *pretty* child, *industrious* child.)

Who has seen a horse work?

What kind of a horse was it?

Who has seen a farmer plow?

What kind of a farmer was he?

What does *good* tell us about the child? (What kind of a child it is.)

What does *large* tell us about the horse?

What does *diligent* tell us about the farmer?

Each of the words *good*, *large*, and *diligent* tells what *kind* a thing is; that is, *describes* or *qualifies* it.

A word that describes or tells the quality of anything, is called an *adjective*.

The word *oranges* may include all oranges of whatever kind. If we add the word *sweet*, the meaning is made narrower by excluding all oranges that are sour. If, again, *large* be added, we reject all small oranges, and the class is made still narrower. If, once more, we add *these* or *those*, we point out *particular* oranges, and so exclude others.

The words *sweet*, *large*, *these*, and *those* restrict the meaning of the word *oranges*. Hence, an adjective is also said to *limit*.

Lesson 13.—Add to each of the following words, one by one, adjectives that limit its meaning. What are excluded in each case?—

trees

roses

apples

birds

men

days

eyes

horses

carriages

Lesson 14.—*Name the adjectives, and tell why each is an adjective:—**

EXAMPLES.—*The* is an adjective because it limits *tree* to some particular tree. *Big* is an adjective because it describes the *tree*.

A wise son maketh a glad father.
Good children have beautiful faces.
The red book contains pretty pictures.
Strong elephants tore up the small trees.

Large streams from little fountains flow,
Tall oaks from little acorns grow.

A gentle boy, with soft and silken locks,
A dreamy boy, with brown and tender eyes,
A castle-builder, with his wooden blocks,
And towers that touch imaginary skies.

Lesson 15.—*Write sentences, using each of the following adjectives in describing an object; thus, “The ice is hard and smooth”:*—

white	wise	idle	happy	bright
black	brave	warm	honest	yellow

Write sentences using adjectives to describe,—

flowers	the stars	a river	the sunshine
clothing	the snow	a tree	the clouds

*TO THE TEACHER.—Though each adjective belongs to some noun, it does not describe a noun; it is the *thing* that is described.

4 THE VERB.

Lesson 16.—*Words expressing Action.*

A child *reads*.

A horse *trots*.

A farmer *rides*.

Tell something that a child does. (A child *reads*.
A child *writes*. A child *studies*.)

Tell something a horse does.

Tell something a farmer does.

What does *reads* tell us about a child? (What it does.)

What does *trots* tell us about a horse?

What does *rides* tell us about a farmer?

Bread *is baked*.

A window *is opened*.

The knife *is sharpened*.

What is done to bread? (It *is baked*. It *is eaten*.)

What is done to a window? (It *is opened*. It *is shut*, etc.)

What is done to the knife?

What does *is baked* tell us about bread? (What is done to it.)

What does *is opened* tell us about the window?

What does *is sharpened* tell us about the knife?

Reads, *trots*, and *rides* tell *what something does*.

Is baked, *is opened*, *is sharpened*, tell *what is done to something*.

Words that tell what something does, or what is done to something, *express action*, and are called *verbs*.

Lesson 17.—*In the following sentences, name the words which tell what a thing does, or what is done to it; thus, “*Eat* is a verb, because it tells what foxes do”; “*Was broken* is a verb, because it tells what was done to the slate”:*—

Foxes eat grapes.
 Bears love honey.
 A good boy is loved.
 The slate was broken.
 Some boys were saved.
 Falling drops wear rocks.
 The Nile fertilizes Egypt.
 The fire warms the water.
 The ground is frozen hard.
 The river washes the shore.
 The letter was written yesterday.
 The soldiers were killed in battle.

Lesson 18.—*Words expressing Being.*

I *am* here.
 Mary *is* happy.
 The apples *are* sweet.
 Charles *was* a soldier.
 The flowers *were* fragrant.

The words *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, are parts of the verb *to be*. They do not express action, but simply tell us *what a thing is*,—that is, they express *being*.

We have now learned that a verb is a word that tells us (1) *what anything does*; (2) *what is done to anything*; or (3) *what anything is*.

Lesson 19.—Find the verbs in these sentences, and tell which express action and which being:—

How cold it is!
Why are you so sad?
I have studied diligently.
Cæsar was killed by Brutus.
Listen to the beautiful music.
The city of Moscow was burned.

Woodman, spare that tree!
Touch not a single bough;
In youth it sheltered me,
And I'll protect it now.

Lesson 20.—Write sentences about the following named objects, telling what they do. Which words tell or declare?—

fish	a carpenter	a grocer
birds	a school-boy	a farmer

Use the following verbs so as to make them inquire:—

is	has gone	has done	must go
were	have gone	have seen	will return

Use the following verbs in sentences to command or entreat:—

go	obey	give	bring
run	study	make	do go

What is each group of words you have written, called?
Why?

Which words are nouns? Why?

Which are pronouns? Why?

Which are verbs? Why?

5. THE ADVERB.

Lesson 21.—*The Adverb.*

The boys played *quietly*.

The boys played *yesterday*.

The boys played *there*.

How did the boys play?

When did they play?

Where did they play?

What does *quietly* tell us about the boys' playing?

What *yesterday*? What *there*?

It will be seen that the words *quietly*, *yesterday*, and *there* do not belong to any of the classes we have already studied. They are used to describe the action expressed by the verb *played*; that is, they tell *how*, *when*, and *where* the action was done.

Words *added to verbs* to describe actions are called *adverbs*.

“A bird flies *very* swiftly.” In this sentence, *very* is added to the adverb *swiftly* to describe more fully the manner of flying, and so is indirectly connected with the verb *flies*.

“The day is *extremely* hot.” The word *extremely* affects the meaning of the adjective *hot*, and is called

an adverb. Because the greater number of words belonging to this class modify the meaning of verbs, they are called adverbs.

Lesson 22.—*Point out the adverbs in the following sentences, telling why each is an adverb; thus, “Well is an adverb because it tells how Annie plays”:*—

- She recites daily.
- Annie plays well.
- The sea roars loudly.
- She writes charmingly.
- The clock strikes hourly.
- The rain was falling fast.
- The smoke ascends slowly.
- Water is found everywhere.
- The children skate gracefully.
- Charles gladly met his friend.
- The spider’s web is beautifully made.
- The mourners marched slowly and sadly.

Lesson 23.—*Make four sentences with the adverb describing the verb:*—

The girl sews.	I walk.
The boy laughs.	We rise.

Make four sentences with the adverb describing the adjective:—

She was late.	Steel is hard.
Oranges are cheap.	Stars are bright.

Write sentences to tell,—

how birds sing.
when birds sing.
where birds sing.

how the clouds move.
when the clouds move.
where the clouds move.

Use an adverb to describe the ringing of a bell.
One to describe the walking of an old person.
Two to describe the speaking of some one you have heard.

C. THE PREPOSITION.

Lesson 24.—Words showing the Relation between Things.

The pencil is *in* the book.
The pencil is *on* the book.
The pencil is *over* the book.
The pencil is *near* the book.
The pencil is *under* the book.

What does *in* tell us in the first sentence? (*In* tells us where the pencil is in relation to the book.)

In the second sentence *on* tells what?

Over shows what in the third sentence?

Near, in the fourth sentence, shows what?

Under, in the fifth sentence, does what?

The book is in the desk.
The lamp is on the table.
The ball is under the chair.
The picture is over the mantle.
The flowers are near the window.

Where is the book in relation to the desk? (*In* the desk.)

Where is the lamp in relation to the table?

Where is the ball in relation to the chair?

Where is the picture in relation to the mantle?

Where are the flowers in relation to the window?

Such words as *in*, *on*, *over*, *under*, *near*, show the relation between things.

Lesson 25.—*Name the words in these sentences which show relation of place between things, and tell between what they show relation; thus, “By shows the relation between sea and city”:*—

The city is by the sea.

James is with his brother.

The jewels are in the box.

The smoke is above the city.

I put the paper on the table.

A heavy fog is over the river.

The string is around the parcel.

The children are under the shed.

Lesson 26.—*Words showing Relations between an Action and a Thing.*

The ship sailed *by* the city.

The ship sailed *near* the city.

The ship sailed *from* the city.

The ship sailed *toward* the city.

What does *by* tell us in the first sentence? (*By* tells where the ship was sailing in relation to the city.)

What does *near* show in the second?

In the third, what does *from* show?

What does *toward* do in the fourth?

The words *by*, *near*, *from*, *toward*, show relations between an action (the act of sailing) and a thing (the city).

Lesson 27.—Name the words in the following which show relation, and state what they show relation between; thus, “The word *in* shows the position of the girl in relation to the garden”:

He fell into the water.

The girl is in the garden.

The boy fell off the bridge.

The rain fell upon the roof.

Charles spoke kindly to him.

The ship went over the wave.

The bird flew through the air.

He stood on the high mountain.

He thought of home and friends.

The wise men came from the east.

He climbed up the steep mountain.

The animal played with the children.

By land, by water, they renew the charge.

It will have been noticed that the words we have used to denote relation are generally *placed before* a noun or pronoun. Because the word *preposition* means *placing before*, such words are called *prepositions*.

Lesson 28.—*Write sentences containing the following prepositions :—*

in	at	on	to	till
by	for	up	from	upon
of	off	with	across	before
over	into	under	around	beside
past	down	among	through	behind

7. THE CONJUNCTION.

Lesson 29.—*Words that join Sentences together.*

John is diligent.
He will succeed.

“John is diligent” is a sentence. “He will succeed” is a sentence. These sentences by themselves have nothing to do with each other, but if we wish to join them together we should say,—

John is diligent—and—he will succeed.
John is diligent—moreover—he will succeed.
John is diligent—so—he will succeed.
John is diligent—therefore—he will succeed.

For what have we used the word *and*? (To join the two sentences “John is diligent,” “He will succeed.”)

For what have we used *moreover*? *So*? *Therefore*?

As *and*, *moreover*, *so*, *therefore* join sentences together, they are called *joining-words* or *conjunctions*.

Lesson 30.—Use “but,” “yet,” “however,” “nevertheless,” to join the following sentences:—

He is sick.

He will recover.

As we have used *but*, *yet*, etc., to join sentences, what may we call them?

Use “when,” “before,” “while,” “after,” “if,” to connect the following sentences:—

The bell rings.

The train starts.

What shall we call such words as *when*, *before*, etc.? Why?

Conjunctions also connect *words*; thus,—

John *and* James are industrious.

He likes his top *and* ball.

Lesson 31.—Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, telling why they are called conjunctions:—

Mary and Jane called yesterday.

We shall have rain or snow very soon.

The earth and moon revolve around the sun.

Teach a child obedience and it will bless thee.

He visited Dresden and Munich in his travels.

Take care of the cents, and the dollars will take care of themselves.

London is the largest city in the world, but Paris is the most beautiful.

8. THE INTERJECTION.

Lesson 32.—*Words expressing Feeling or Emotion.*

Alas! he is forever lost.

Fie! Fie! my little man.

Hurra! Charles has won the race.

What! have you also deceived me?

Hark! 'tis the bells of the village church.

What sudden feeling of mind is expressed in the first sentence?

What word expresses the sudden feeling?

Omit the word and read the sentence.

Does the sentence express the same feeling without the word?

What feeling or emotion is expressed in the second sentence? In the third? In the fourth? In the fifth?

Words used like *hurra*, *alas*, *what*, *fie*, and *hark*, to express sudden feeling, or an emotion, are called *interjections*. Most interjections are followed by the exclamation point.

Lesson 33.—*Write sentences, each containing one of the following interjections. Place an exclamation point (!) after the interjections:—*

oh

hark

alas

hurra

ah

hush

indeed

bravo

fie

what

pshaw

halloo

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

Lesson 34.—*Names of the Parts of Speech.*

We have now learned to distinguish eight different kinds, or classes, of words. To one or other of these classes, every word in our language may be referred. In determining to what class each word belonged, we were guided entirely by the *use*, or office, it performed in a sentence. A word may be at one time a noun, at another an adjective, and at another an adverb; and we can tell how to classify it only by noticing carefully the kind of work it does. For instance, in the sentence “The well is deep,” well is a *noun*. In the sentence “The child is well,” well is an *adjective*; while in the sentence “The boy reads well,” well is an adverb.

Since speech is made up of sentences, the different classes of words used in forming sentences are called *Parts of Speech*. They are:—

1. *Noun*—the name of anything.
2. *Pronoun*—word used instead of a noun.
3. *Adjective*—word added to a noun to describe or limit its meaning.
4. *Verb*—word that expresses action or being.
5. *Adverb*—word which modifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, or other adverb.
6. *Preposition*—word used to show a relation between things, or between an action and a thing.
7. *Conjunction*—word used to connect words and sentences.
8. *Interjection*—word used to express sudden feeling or emotion.

STUDIES OF CLASSES OF WORDS.

Lesson 35.—*Selections for the Study of Words.*

EXAMPLE.—Night is very beautiful in the desert. The day is too bright and too hot, but the night is pleasantly cool.

NOUNS.—*Night* names the time from sunset to sunrise. *Desert* is the name for the vast sandy plain of Africa and Arabia. *Day* names the time from sunrise to sunset.

ADJECTIVES.—*Beautiful* describes *night*. *The* limits the nouns to which it is joined. *Bright* and *hot* describe *day*. *Cool* describes *night*.

VERBS.—*Is* asserts the quality *beautiful* of *night*. The second *is* asserts the qualities *bright* and *hot* of *day*. The third *is* asserts the quality *cool* of *night*.

ADVERBS.—*Very* denotes the degree of beauty. *Too*, the degree of brightness and heat, and *pleasantly* the degree of coolness.

PREPOSITIONS.—*In* shows the relation between *beautiful* and *desert*.

CONJUNCTIONS.—*And* joins *bright* and *hot*. *But* joins what follows it with “The day is,” etc.

The ostrich can run very fast. It eats grain, roots, and grass, and has a fancy for stones, bits of brick, nails, and such things.

Some flowers please us by their beauty of color and form. The daisy has a modest, lowly look. It is the favorite of all the poets.

Hemp is a plant. It grows in the temperate climates of America and Europe. Hemp is very tough and pliable.

Humming-birds build their nests on twigs of trees. The nests are made of soft substances, and are covered on the outside with bits of lichen and moss.

The coffee-tree grows in warm countries. When the beans, or coffee berries, are ripe, they are gathered from the trees and placed on mats in the sun.

Who lived in America when the white man came here? A great many people lived in it. They had not white skins as we have. They were called Indians.

The snail lives on leaves and fruit. During the summer, he eats and grows fat. As winter comes, he prepares a safe home for himself under leaves and moss.

The tea-plant will grow in both warm and cold countries. The best tea is grown in China and Japan. When tea is steeped in water, it makes an excellent drink.

The camel can travel over the hot and sandy desert. Its long eye-lashes shade its eyes from the glare of the sun. The Arabs drink the camel's milk. We make brushes and shawls from its hair.

The brown bear lives in the woods. He is a good climber, and makes his home in a hollow tree. He likes wild fruits, and often robs bees of their honey. When the cold winter comes, the bear creeps into a hole under the thick trees.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 36.—Directions for Written Composition.

Write the subject or title on the first ruled line, beginning each important word with a capital.

Leave a vacant line between the title and the first paragraph.

Begin the first line of each paragraph about an inch from the edge of the paper, and the other lines about half an inch from the edge.

Make a new paragraph for each new thought or division of your subject.

Be careful in your writing, spelling, punctuation, use of capitals, and neatness of your composition.

Read the following story once, and then write it in your own words.

Think the story through before beginning to write.

Use the inverted commas (‘‘) when a person begins to speak, and these (”) when he ends.

HURTING HIS FATHER.

A boy was tempted by some of his companions to take fruit from a tree which his father had forbidden him to touch.

“You need not be afraid,” said they, “for if your father should find out that you had taken them, he is so kind that he will not hurt you.”

“That is the very reason,” replied the boy, “why I should not touch the apples. My father may not hurt me, yet I know my disobedience would hurt him, and that would be worse to me than anything else.”

THE PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

DEVELOPMENT.

Lesson 37.—*The Parts of a Sentence.*

Rain falls.
Girls sing.
Horses run.

What is each group of words called? Why?

What are we talking about in the first sentence?

What do we say or assert about rain?

What are we speaking of in the second sentence?

What do we say or assert about girls?

What is it we are speaking of in the third sentence?

What is it we say or assert about horses?

Tell in each sentence,—

1. Of what we speak.
2. What we say of it.

Birds fly.
Fire burns.
Boys jump.
Winds blow.
Kittens play.
Children laugh.

Lions roar.
Rivers flow.
Grass grows.
Smoke rises.
Stars twinkle.
Squirrels climb.

What are the above groups of words called? In sentences, how many parts? What does one part stand for? (The thing spoken of.) What does the other part do? (Tells what is said about it.)

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

Lesson 38.—*The Chief Parts of a Sentence.*

Men work.
Birds sing.

Girls sew.
Fishes swim.

What is spoken of in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? In the fourth?

The word (or words) which denotes what is spoken of is called the *subject* of the sentence.

What is the subject of the first sentence? Why? Of the second? Why? Of the third? Why? Of the fourth? Why?

What word denotes what we say about *men*? About *birds*? About *girls*? About *fishes*?

The word (or words) which denotes what is said about the subject is called the *predicate* of the sentence.

What is the predicate of the first sentence? Why? Of the second? Why? Of the third? Why? Of the fourth? Why?

Lesson 39.—*Taking the sentences given above, we may arrange the subject and predicate as follows:—*

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Men	work.
Birds	sing.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Girls	sew.
Fishes	swim.

Name the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences:—

The lion roars.
 Owls destroy mice.
 Some insects sting.
 Most animals swim.
 A snail moves slowly.
 The lark sings sweetly.
 Some roses bloom early.
 Wholesome food nourishes.
 Columbus sailed from Spain.

Lesson 40.—*Make the following words SUBJECTS by saying something of them:—*

I	the stars	the river.
you	the grass	the ships.
they	the flowers	the picture.

Lesson 41.—*Make the following words PREDICATES by using them with appropriate subjects:—*

helps	were swept	have been spelt.
grow	are running	have been taught.
sleeps	were climbing	have been trying.

Notice the preceding words. What classes of words do you find used as subjects? As predicates?

Every sentence must consist of two parts, at least,—the subject and the predicate.

A sentence containing only one subject and one predicate is called a *simple sentence*.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 42.—*The Farmer and the Stork.*

A farmer once spread his net to catch some cranes that came to feed on his corn. He caught a number of them, and among them he found a stork. The bird cried out very piteously, “Please, Mr. Farmer, let me go; you see I am not a crane,—only a poor innocent stork.” The man said, “That is true enough, but were you not with the thieves who were stealing my corn? One is known by the company he keeps.” So the stork was killed with the rest.

Reproduce, orally and in writing, the preceding story.

Make up another story that will teach the same lesson, giving it the title, “A Boy is known by His Friends.” You may suppose a boy was found in bad company, and suffered the same punishment as his companions.

Lesson 43.—*Completion of the Predicate.*

Spring brings — *flowers*.

The lamp gives — *light*.

The book contains — *pictures*.

Read the above sentences, omitting the italicized words. Do they make sense? Why not? (The predicates are incomplete.) Read all the words of the first sentence. What word have we added to the predicate to complete the sense?

What word have we added to the predicate in the second sentence?

To the predicate in the third?

The word added to the predicate to complete the sense is called the *object*.

Lesson 44.—*In the following sentences, arrange the subject, predicate, and object in three columns, as follows:—*

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object.</i>
The children	gathered	wild flowers.

They can hear the bell.

The canary sang a song.

Virtue secures happiness.

The soldiers carried guns.

The clock struck the hour.

The driver seized the reins.

The postman delivers letters.

The pupils enjoyed the entertainment.

Lesson 45.—*What the Predicate may be.*

Birds fly.

Sugar is sweet.

Horses are animals.

What is the predicate of the first sentence? Why? (It asserts what birds do.) What part of speech is *fly*? Then the predicate may be what?

What is the predicate in the second sentence? Does *is* alone tell what sugar is? What word is used with *is* to assert something about *sugar*?

What part of speech is *is*? What part of speech is *sweet*? The predicate may consist of what?

What is the predicate of the third sentence? Does *are* assert what horses are? What two words are used to assert something about horses? What parts of speech are *are* and *animals*? The predicate may consist of what?

The simple predicate may consist of a verb; of a verb and adjective; of a verb and noun (or pronoun).

An adjective like *sweet*, which completes the predicate and expresses some quality that belongs to the subject, is called a *predicate adjective*.

A noun like *animals*, which completes the predicate and denotes the same thing as the subject, is called a *predicate noun*.

Lesson 46.—Select the predicate adjectives and predicate nouns :—

Venice is a city.

The winter was cold.

The cloth feels smooth.

Her dress looks elegant.

The flowers smell fragrant.

The boy became president.

The peaches taste delicious.

His name was William Tell.

The fox is a cunning animal.

Lesson 47.—*Complete the following sentences by placing an adjective after each word:—*

He feels ____.
The rose smells ____.
The child seems ____.
The apple tastes ____.
The boy appears ____.
The country looks ____.

Write a sentence in which the simple predicate is a verb alone.

Write a sentence in which the simple predicate is a verb and adjective.

Write a sentence in which the simple predicate is a verb and noun.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 48.—*The Dove and the Bee.*

A bee went to a river to get a drink of water, for he was thirsty. Going too near the edge, he fell in and the swift stream carried him away. He might have drowned, but a dove on the bank threw a twig into the river, and the bee was saved.

Some time after, a hunter saw the dove and was going to shoot her. Just as he had raised his gun, the bee flew and stung the man on the hand, and made him miss his aim. So the bee saved the dove's life.

After reading the preceding story, reproduce it orally and in writing. Then apply the lesson taught in a story of your own.

ENLARGEMENT OF THE SUBJECT.

Lesson 49.—*Extension of the Sentence.—The Subject.*

Horses ran.

White horses ran.

Large white horses ran.

Six large white horses ran.

What is the subject of the first sentence?

Look at the second sentence, and tell what word has been added to the subject, *horses*, to express color.

In the third sentence, to indicate size.

In the fourth sentence, to show number.

What is the entire subject of the fourth sentence?

How has the subject, *horses*, been enlarged? (By the adjectives *six*, *large*, and *white*.)

What word in the first sentence names the subject? Mention the one word in the fourth sentence which names the subject, omitting all words which describe it.

This one word, which simply names the thing thought of, we call the *simple subject*.

The simple subject and its describing words form the *modified subject*.

Lesson 50.—*In the following sentences, name the modified subject, then the simple subject:—*

White, fleecy clouds floated by.

White and fleecy clouds floated by.

A large, noble ship sailed out to sea.

Soft, downy feathers covered its back.

An old, infirm man asked for a drink.
Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead.
Rare, beautiful, fragrant flowers filled the garden.
Clear, cool, refreshing water gushed from the spring.
Sweet, clear, musical sounds came from the hillside.
The beautiful, bright, round sun disappeared behind the hills.

In the preceding examples, what mark separates the adjectives? Does a comma separate the two adjectives in the first sentence? In the second sentence? Why?

Two or more adjectives following each other without a conjunction are separated by commas.

Lesson 51.—*In the following sentences, enlarge the simple subject by adding one or more adjectives. The exercise may be made highly interesting by allowing each pupil, in turn, to add a describing word:—*

EXAMPLE.—A girl passed.

A *delicate* girl passed.

A *slender, delicate* girl passed.

A *pale, slender, delicate* girl passed.

The box was broken.

The servant is beloved.

Clouds hang over the city.

The smoke rises gracefully.

The horse has a glossy mane.

The tree grows in the forest.

A dog saved him from drowning.

The branches were torn from the tree.

Lesson 52.—*In the following sentences, what word has been added to the subject to express color? Quality? Material? Condition? Kind? Size? Age? Number?—*

Three birds flew.
Wise men are useful.
Cotton goods were sold.
Black dresses were worn.
Large elephants were caught.
The old and infirm man rode.
Sweet, juicy oranges grow in Florida.
Large, bright, blue eyes sparkled and danced.

Lesson 53.—*Sentences with Modified Subjects.*

Write five statements, each containing a modified subject.

Write five interrogative sentences, each having a modified subject.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 54.—*The Buttercup and the Pink.*

A little buttercup was placed in a glass of water with a pink. The pink was very sweet, and the little buttercup thought to herself, “Oh, how I wish I could smell as sweet as the pink.” How happy she was the next day to find that she had the perfume of the pink.

Write the preceding story in your own words, and tell what you think it means.

Invent another story that will teach the same lesson.

ENLARGEMENT OF THE PREDICATE.

Lesson 55.—*Extension of the Sentence.—The Predicate.*

Horses ran.

Horses ran *swiftly*.

Horses ran *swiftly away*.

What is the predicate in the first sentence?

In the second, what word has been added to the predicate to show the manner of running?

In the third sentence, to tell the place?

What is the predicate now? How has the predicate been enlarged? (By the adverbs *swiftly* and *away*.)

What one word in the third sentence tells us what the horses did? What name may we give to that word which simply tells us what they did, omitting how and where they did it? What may we call the simple predicate and the describing words that belong to it?

The simple predicate, with its describing words, forms the *modified predicate*.

Lesson 56.—*Name simple and modified predicates:—*

The bells ring merrily.

The wind blows gently to-night.

They laughed long and heartily.

The Niagara rolls magnificently.

My friend visited me yesterday.

The treasure could be found nowhere.

The soldiers fought nobly and fearlessly.

That child is speaking thoughtlessly now.

Lesson 57.—*In the following sentences, extend the predicate by adding one or more adverbs that will tell when, where, or how:—*

We will write.
 The nightingale sings.
 The diamond sparkles.
 They received their friends.
 They examined the pictures.
 The child clapped its hands.

Write five statements, and five interrogative sentences, each containing a modified predicate.

Lesson 58.—*The Enlarged Sentence.*

In the preceding lessons we have learned how a sentence may be enlarged. We took the simplest form of sentence, consisting of two words, and by adding adjectives to the simple subject, and adverbs to the simple predicate, extended the sentence; thus,—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Horses	ran.
White horses	ran away.
Large white horses	ran swiftly away.
Six large white horses	ran swiftly away.

In these ways, a sentence may be made to express more, or to express a thought more completely.

In future lessons, we shall see how a sentence may be still further enlarged by adding to the two principal members modifying phrases—a combination of two or more words which perform the office of a single word.

ANALYSIS.

ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Lesson 59.—*We may now separate a sentence into its parts, arranging in four columns the subject, predicate, object, and modification of predicate, as follows:—*

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Mod. of Pred.</i>
The diligent pupil	recited	all his lessons	very correctly.

Breaking up a sentence into its parts, and arranging it as above, is called *Analysis*.

We analyze a sentence by telling, first, the entire subject; second, the entire predicate; third, the simple subject and its modifiers; fourth, the simple predicate and its modifiers.

EXAMPLE.—*The diligent pupil* is the modified subject. *Recited all his lessons very correctly* is the modified predicate.

Diligent describes the simple subject *pupil*, which is also limited by *the*.

To *recited*, the simple predicate, belong *all his lessons*, showing what; and *very correctly*, showing manner.

To *lessons* belong *all* and *his*, showing number and possession. To *correctly* belongs *very*, showing degree.

Lesson 60.—*Analyze orally and by diagram:—*

She sang the song very sweetly.

He often met the kind gentleman.

Columbus discovered the West Indies.

The sailors fastened the boat securely.
The animal approached him cautiously.
Alexander conquered the known world.
The builder paid all the men yesterday.
The artist examined the picture carefully.
The procession moved silently and slowly.
The prisoner awaited the decision anxiously.
The poor should always command sympathy.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 61.—*The Cork-Tree.*

Cork is the bark of a species of oak which grows abundantly in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, principally in Spain.

There are two barks to the tree, the outer one being stripped for use. The cork is valuable according as it is soft and velvety.

When the sapling is about ten years old, it is stripped of its outer bark. This stripping is worthless. The inner bark appears blood red, and if it is split or injured the tree dies.

After eight or ten years the outer bark has again grown, and then the tree is again stripped. Every ten years thereafter it furnishes a new crop of bark, which varies in thickness from half an inch to five inches. The tree grows to a prodigious size, and lives to the ripe old age of one hundred and fifty years.

Study the foregoing description of “The Cork-Tree” until you can write it from memory. Add anything of interest you have learned from conversation or reading.

HOW THE SUBJECT IS MODIFIED.

Lesson 62.—*Adjective Modifiers.*

The man is generous.

The wealthy man is generous.

The man of wealth is generous.

What is the subject of the first sentence?

In the second sentence, the subject has been enlarged by what word? What part of speech is *wealthy*? *The subject may be modified by what?*

In the third sentence, what words have been used instead of *wealthy*? What do we call expressions like *of wealth*? (We call them phrases; that is, short expressions not forming a complete sentence.) Since *of wealth* describes the subject, *man*, like an adjective, it is called what kind of phrase?

Therefore, the subject may be modified by what?

Lesson 63.—*Name the simple subject of each sentence, and the word or phrase which modifies it; thus, "Of the house is a phrase used as an adjective to modify roof. It tells what or which roof is meant":—*

The pretty linnet sings.

Heavy clouds darken the sky.

The roof of the house is slanting.

The flowers of spring have all faded.

The source of the Nile is Lake Victoria.

The boys in our street are well-behaved.

The fast-falling rain refreshes the flowers.

Skins of wild animals served them for clothing.
 The spreading branches give shelter to the traveler.
 A small, round, and smooth pebble lay in the brook.
 Sparkling water from a cool spring refreshed the travelers.

The city on the hill may be seen from a great distance.

Lesson 64.—*Change the adjectives in the following expressions to adjective phrases, and use each phrase in a sentence; as, “The plants in the garden grew rapidly”:*—

wise men.
 garden plants.
 brave soldiers.
 Irish emigrant.
 a thorny bush.
 valuable diamonds.

country home.
 industrious habits.
 intelligent people.
 four-footed animal.
 suburban residence.
 an American home.

Lesson 65.—Possessive Modifiers.

Boys skate swiftly over the ice.
 Brown's boys skate swiftly over the ice.

What is the subject in the first sentence?
 In the second sentence, by what has the simple subject been enlarged?

In what form is the noun *Brown's*? (Possessive form; see page 76.)

Therefore, the subject may be modified by what?

Lesson 66.—Appositive Modifiers.

Smith has returned.

Smith, the merchant, has returned.

Look at the first sentence and tell who has returned. What is the use of the noun *merchant* in the second sentence? (It is used with the noun *Smith* to identify or describe.)

A noun used with another noun to identify or describe it, is said to be in *apposition* with that noun.

The subject has been modified by what noun? Since the noun *merchant* is in apposition, therefore *the subject may be modified by what?*

Give the uses of the following nouns:—

Cicero, the orator, spoke fluently.

Scott, the novelist, is much admired.

Galileo, the astronomer, became blind.

Rosa Bonheur, the artist, loves animals.

Paris, the capital of France, is a beautiful city.

What separates the part of each sentence used to explain from the part explained?

A part of a sentence used for explanation is separated from the rest of the sentence by the comma.

The object of a sentence may be modified in the same way as the subject:—

I know a man.

I know a *wealthy* man.

I know a man of *wealth*.

I know *Brown's* boys.

I know Smith, the *merchant*.

HOW THE PREDICATE IS MODIFIED.

Lesson 67.—*Adverbial Modifiers.*

The men rode.

The men rode skillfully.

The men rode with skill.

What is the predicate in the first sentence?

Look at the second sentence. How did the men ride? What does the word *skillfully* tell us? What word, then, does *skillfully* belong to?

What part of speech is *skillfully*?

Therefore, the predicate can be modified by what?

In the third sentence, what words have been substituted for *skillfully*? *With skill* is called what? (Phrase.) It has the force of what? It is therefore what kind of phrase? *The predicate may be modified by what?*

Lesson 68.—*Change the adverbial phrases into adverbs. State what word each phrase modifies; thus, “With courage” is a phrase used like an adverb to modify the verb fought”:*—

The soldiers fought with courage.

For this reason spoke I to them.

In a short time the sun will rise.

The boy acted in a noble manner.

At that time railroads were unknown.

At this place the great battle was fought.

With joy we welcome the return of friends.
The good man spoke with great solemnity.
In this place the poet died; in that place he was buried.

Lesson 69.—Use a phrase instead of the adverb:—

go <i>now</i> .	speak <i>kindly</i> .	blew <i>furiously</i> .
sits <i>idly</i> .	went <i>hastily</i> .	labor <i>patiently</i> .
come <i>soon</i> .	went <i>promptly</i> .	study <i>diligently</i> .
sails <i>rapidly</i> .	walk <i>homeward</i> .	acts <i>unreasonably</i> .

Lesson 70.—Write sentences with a qualifying word,—

- In the subject.
- In the predicate.
- In the object.

Write sentences with qualifying phrases,—

- In the subject.
- Added to the predicate verb.
- Added to the object.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 71.—A story from memory.

Write from memory any story you have ever read or heard. Make an appropriate title for your story.

When you have finished writing, carefully read what you have done, and correct it if necessary.

THE PARTICIPLE AND THE INFINITIVE.

Lesson 72.—*The Participle.*

The stars are *shining*. The flower was *crushed*.
The pitcher was *broken*.

Shining, crushed, and broken are here used as what?

Shining, crushed, and broken are here used as what?

The stars, *shining* in the night, are very bright.

Truth, *crushed* to earth, will rise again.

The ship, *broken* by the waves, was wrecked.

In these sentences, *shining*, *crushed*, and *broken* belong partly to the verb, and partly to the adjective. *Shining*, as an adjective, modifies *stars*; as a verb, it is modified by the adverbial phrase *in the night*.

Each of these words, because it shares or *participates* in the nature of a verb and an adjective, is called a *participle*.

Lesson 73.—Name the participles, and tell how each is used:—

We climbed a wall overgrown with moss.

The children singing in the room are happy.

The girls, seeing their danger, cried for help.

The army, disheartened by defeat, fled in disorder.

Having heard the alarm, they escaped. (They, having heard.)

Lesson 74.—*The Infinitive.*

An infinitive is a form of the verb that merely names its action.

The infinitive may be used as a *noun*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*.

To play is pleasant. (Playing.)

Here is food *to eat*.

He came *to learn*.

In the first example *to play* is the name of an action—hence a noun; *to eat* describes *food*, and so is an adjective; *to learn* tells the reason for coming, and is therefore an adverb.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 75.—*The Girl and the Bird.*

A plump little girl and a thin little bird
Were out in the meadow together.

“How cold that poor little bird must be
Without any nice warm clothes,” said she,
“Although it is sunshiny weather.”

“A nice little girl is that,” said he,
“But, oh, how cold she must be! For, see,
She hasn’t a single feather!”—
So each shivered to think of the other poor
thing,
Although it was sunshiny weather.

Write, in your own words, the story told in the poem.
Be careful to use quotation marks correctly.

STUDIES IN WORDS AND PHRASES.

Lesson 76.—*Example of Analysis.*

Around the fire, one wintry night,
The farmer's rosy children sat.

The lines above are a sentence, because they express a complete thought.

“The farmer's rosy children” is the subject; “sat around the fire one wintry night,” the predicate.

To *children*, the simple subject, belong *rosy* and *farmer's*, adjective modifiers, showing condition and possession (or whose children sat). *The* limits *farmer's* by excluding all other persons.

To *sat*, the simple predicate, are added *around the fire* and *one wintry night*, adverbial phrases, telling the place and time.

Fire and *night* name the place and time of sitting.

One limits *night* to a single, particular night. *Wintry* describes *night* by telling character.

The vine still clings to the moldering wall.

The Frost looked forth one still, clear night.

On the day of victory, no weariness is felt.

A rare species of flower grows in our garden.

In the best books, great men give us their most precious thoughts.

The tops of the highest mountains are covered with snow at all seasons of the year.

On the northern bank of the James River, in Virginia, stand the ruins of an old church.

Its crumbling tower and broken arch are almost hidden by tangled vines.

Within the walls of the church-yard may be found a few ancient tombstones overgrown with ivy and long grass.

The squirrel is a bright, winsome little fellow. In his natural state, he seems thoroughly happy. His home is a snug little hole in the fork of a tree.

Under a spreading chestnut-tree,
The village smithy stands.

Among the thistles on the hill,
In tears sat Little Sorrow.

The cowslips spring in the marshes,
The roses bloom on the hill.

In a valley, centuries ago,
Grew a little fern-leaf, green and slender.

Little Ellie sits alone,
'Mid the beeches of a meadow,
By a stream-side, on the grass.

The silent moon, with her peaceful light,
Looks down on the hills, with snow all white.

Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the
angels.

THE COMMA.

THE COMMA IN SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Lesson 77.—*In simple sentences, the comma usually marks off,—*

(1) *Names of persons addressed; as,—*

James, I do not wish to see you this evening.

I do not wish to see you this evening, James.

I do not wish, James, to see you this evening.

(2) *Words of the same kind following each other without a conjunction; as,—*

Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead.

Corn, tallow, flax, hemp, and hides are exported from Russia.

He spoke with learning, eloquence, and boldness.

An adjective may modify one or more adjectives and noun taken as one term, in which case the adjectives are not separated by the comma. In the sentence—

“It is the one little sweet blossom that we earn by faithful work, which we love best, after all,”

sweet modifies *blossom*, *little* modifies *sweet blossom*, *one* modifies *little sweet blossom*, and *the* modifies *one little sweet blossom*.

(3) *Words in apposition; as,—*

Scott, the novelist, is dead.

Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was born at Tarsus.

(4.) *Words out of their natural order are often separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as,—*

The country is beautiful in June.

In June, the country is beautiful.

The words in the first sentence are in their natural order. What words in the second sentence are not in their natural order?

Lesson 78.—*Transpose and punctuate the following sentences:—*

He acted wisely on this occasion.

Everything is possible to perseverance.

The enterprise was unsuccessful at first.

He passed the throng with graceful ease.

He began his lecture at the appointed time.

Sight is the most important of all our senses.

The messenger will come before you are ready.

We saw the snow-covered mountain in the morning.

The flowers bend their heads over the clear brook.

Lesson 79.—*Write sentences containing,—*

Three or more adjectives used with the same noun.

A noun in apposition.

The name of a person addressed used at the beginning of the sentence.

The name of a person addressed used in the middle of the sentence.

The name of a person addressed used at the close of the sentence.

A phrase out of its natural order.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 80.—*Letter-Writing.*

Write a letter to some one describing your school,— giving its name, location, on what street, on high or low ground, trees and other surroundings, size, rooms, your own room described, what you study, and anything else of interest.

Follow the model given below in writing the date, address, and subscription:—

Cincinnati, June 9, 1890.

Dear Cousin George:

Affectionately yours,

Ralph Howard.

PARTS OF SPEECH CLASSIFIED.

KINDS OF NOUNS.

Lesson 81.—*Proper and Common Nouns.*

He lived in a town.

A boy studies his lessons.

The river rises in the mountains.

In the first sentence, what town is referred to? Any particular town? Is *town* a name for a particular place, or is it a name *common* to all towns?

What boy is spoken of? Any particular boy? Is the word *boy* a name which belongs specially to any one boy, or is it a name *common* to all boys?

Can you tell what *river* and *mountain* are meant? Are these words names of any special river or any particular mountains, or are they names used in *common* for all rivers and all mountains?

He lived in Baltimore.

John Rogers studies his lessons.

The Missouri River rises in the Rocky Mountains.

Is *Baltimore* a name for all towns, or for some particular town?

Can you now tell what boy is spoken of? Is *John Rogers* a name common to all boys, or is it a name for some *particular* boy?

Are *Missouri* and *Rocky* names of some particular river and of some particular mountains?

Some names are common to all things of the same class; as, *boy*, *town*, *river*, *mountains*.

Other names are names of a particular one of a class; as, *John Rogers, Baltimore, Missouri, Rocky*.

A name common to all things of the same class is called a *common noun*.

A name that belongs only to a particular person, place, or thing is called a *proper noun*.

Proper nouns, and words derived from them, should begin with a capital letter; as, *America, American, England, English, Englishman*.

Names of qualities, as *hardness, whiteness*, are called *abstract nouns*. The name of a collection of things taken together, as *flock, army*, is called a *collective noun*.

Collective nouns and abstract nouns are generally included among common nouns.

Lesson 82.—*Classify the nouns in the following examples. Regard a name composed of two or more words as one noun:—*

Two little girls, Jessie and Rose, have seen the forests of South America and the deserts of Arabia, the picture-galleries of Rome and the pyramids of Egypt. They have played with little Russian children all bundled up in furs, and with little Spanish children who wore hardly any clothes at all. They have seen tea growing in China, and all manner of curious things in Japan.

There's a wideness in God's mercy

Like the wideness of the sea;

There's a kindness in his justice

Which is more than liberty.

For the love of God is broader
 Than the measure of man's mind;
 And the heart of the Eternal
 Is most wonderfully kind.

Examine the preceding selections. Each sentence begins with what kind of letter?

The proper nouns begin with what kind of letters?
 Each line of poetry begins with what kind of letter?
 Words derived from proper names begin how?
 In the stanza, what word is the name of Deity?
 What word stands for the name of Deity?
 With what kind of letter does each begin?

Lesson 83.—Fill the blanks with proper nouns:—

The names of the days are —, —, —, —, —, —, —.

The names of the months are —, —, —, —, —, —, —, —.

The 25th of — is —.

The first day of the year is — — —.

— — — is the President of — — —.

Ships sail across the — — in six days.

The — of — is a national holiday.

Lesson 84.—Write as directed:—

A sentence containing a proper name.

A sentence containing a word derived from a proper name.

A sentence containing a name of Deity and a pronoun that refers to it.

A sentence containing the name of a holiday.

A sentence containing the name of an ocean.

Write from memory five lines of poetry.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 85.—*Hints for the Composition.*

Write an account of some meeting, real or imaginary.

Tell why it was held, and when and where.

Mention the officers of the meeting, using the titles Pres., V.-Pres., Sec., Treas.

Suppose addresses to have been made by persons having these titles: Rev., Prof., Dr., M. D.

Name notable persons in the audience, giving the titles Col., Capt., Lieut., Gov., D. D.

KINDS OF PRONOUNS.

Lesson 86.—*Personal Pronouns.*

I spoke to James kindly.

Charles, did you see him?

He and she were school-mates.

It was the last day of summer.

Name the pronouns in the above sentences.

Which one represents the speaker?

Which one the person addressed?

Which the persons spoken of?

Which the thing spoken of?

Lesson 87.—*Examine the following pronouns, and tell, from their FORMS, which each represents:—*

I	we	you	he	she	they
my	our	your	his	her	their, it, it-
me	us	yours	him	hers	them

Pronouns which stand for the speaker are said to be of the *first person*. Name the pronouns of the first person. Are they always of the first person? Which imply that the speaker includes others with him?

Pronouns which represent the person or persons addressed are said to be in the *second person*. Name them. Are they always of the second person?

Pronouns which represent the person or thing spoken of are of the *third person*. Name the pronouns of the third person. Are they always of the third person?

A pronoun whose form shows whether it is of the first, second, or third person, is a *personal pronoun*.

I, my-self, saw it. We, our-selves, saw it.
 You, your-self, saw it. You, your-selves, saw it.
 He, him-self, saw it. They, them-selves, saw it.

Name the pronouns in the above sentences made by adding *self* or *elves* to the personal pronouns.

The words *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself* etc., are called *compound personal pronouns*.

Lesson 88.—*Relative Pronouns.*

I, who speak.
 You, who speak.
 He, who speaks.

Of what person is *who* in the first sentence?
Of what person is *who* in the second sentence?
Of what person is *who* in the third sentence?
Is *who* always of the same person?

Who relates alike to speaker, person spoken to, or person spoken of.

Pronouns of this class are *who*, (*whose*, *whom*,) *which*, *that*, and *what*. They are called *relative pronouns*.

I saw the boy *who* lost his book.
I caught the horse *which* ran away.
This is the house *which* my father built.

Name the relative pronoun in the first sentence. In the second. In the third. To what does each refer?

State for what each stands,—whether for persons, for inferior animals, or for things.

That is often used in place of *who* or *which*. We could say,—

I saw the boy *that* lost his book.
I caught the horse *that* ran away.
This is the house *that* my father built.

What is used in place of *that which*; as, I found what (that which) I wanted.

The word to which the relative pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*.

Name the antecedent in each of the preceding sentences.

Lesson 89.—Name each relative pronoun and its antecedent:—

The person who does no good does harm.

All are pleased with children that behave well.

'T is the mind that makes the body rich.

We honor those persons who are honorable.

The bird which sang so sweetly has flown.

He who observes it, ere he passes on,
Gazes his fill, and comes and comes again.

Lesson 90.—Write sentences as follows:—

Three sentences illustrating the rule for the use of the relative *who*.

Three illustrating the rule for the use of *which*.

Three illustrating the rule for the use of *that*.

Lesson 91.—Interrogative Pronouns.

Who came to-day? Charles.

Which will you have, apples or pears? Apples.

What are you doing? Singing.

What is the answer to the first question? What word represents *Charles*? What part of speech is *who*?

Which in the second question represents what?

What in the third question?

Who, (*whose, whom*), *which*, and *what*, when used to ask questions, are called *interrogative pronouns*.

The antecedent of the interrogative pronoun is found in the answer; thus, Who has come? *Mary*.

Lesson 92.—Write six sentences, each containing an interrogative pronoun.

Who used as the subject of a sentence.

Whose used to show possession.

Whom used as the object of a verb.

Which referring to a person.

Which referring to a thing.

What used as the subject of a sentence.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 93.—*Hints for the Composition.*

Write a letter about the events of yesterday. You awoke, when? Was the day bright? Warm? Sunshiny? Stormy? What you did: work? play? study? Anything of interest happened? Good actions done?

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

Lesson 94.—*Qualifying Adjectives.*

Beautiful shawls are made in Asia.

Sweet sounds came from the room.

Stormy weather continued during the day.

Name the adjectives in the above sentences.

Tell why each is an adjective.

They describe by stating what of the objects to which they belong?

Adjectives like *beautiful*, *sweet*, and *stormy* describe by stating the qualities of things, and are therefore called *qualifying adjectives*.

Lesson 95.—*Numeral Adjectives.*

Two birds flew.	Some ships sailed.
Both boys came.	Many men walked.
No girl was idle.	Every pupil studies.

The words *two*, *both*, *no*, *every*, *many*, and *some* are used to describe. They do not express quality (as *beautiful*, *sweet*, and *stormy* did), but *number* or *quantity*. They are therefore called *numeral adjectives*.

Other numeral adjectives are: *first*, *second*, *none*, *few*, *each*, *either*, *neither*, *all*, *other*, *any*.

Two or more numeral adjectives joined may be used as a single adjective; as, *a hundred* men, *three hundred and fifth* hymn.

Lesson 96.—*Distinguishing Adjectives.*

The girl laughs.	A girl laughs.
This girl laughs.	These girls laugh.
That girl laughs.	Those girls laugh.

The words *the*, *this*, and *that* are added to the noun *girl* to perform the same office as an adjective; they point out or distinguish one girl from another, and are therefore called *distinguishing adjectives*.

Adjectives formed from proper names are called *proper adjectives*; as, *Irish*, *Italian*, *Mexican*. Proper adjectives should begin with a capital letter.

A, *an*, and *the* are sometimes called *articles*.

Lesson 97.—*In the following examples, name all the adjectives, and say whether they are adjectives of quality, quantity, or distinction. State to what each belongs, and the idea (number, color, condition, etc.) it expresses; thus, "Eight is a numeral adjective belonging to eyes, which it limits by denoting number":—*

Spiders have eight eyes.

All insects have six legs.

Some caterpillars are of a green color, with black bands around their bodies. They become gay, beautiful butterflies.

His hair is crisp, and black, and long;
 His face is like the tan;
 His brow is wet with honest sweat;
 He earns whate'er he can,
 And looks the whole world in the face,
 For he owes not any man.

Those evening bells! those evening bells!
 How many a tale their music tells,
 Of youth, and home, and that sweet time,
 When last I heard their soothing chime.

The day is cold, and dark, and dreary;
 It rains, and the wind is never weary.

Great, wide, wonderful, beautiful world,
 With the beautiful water above you curled,
 And the wonderful grass upon your breast—
 World, you are beautifully dressed!

Lesson 98.—*Think of some object you have seen, as a tree, house, boy, girl, man, etc., and select two or more suitable adjectives from those below to describe it:—*

EXAMPLES.—A *tall, slender* tree stood there.

My dog was a *brave, strong, noble* fellow.

The fruit is *large, rich, ripe, and juicy*.

The house is a *low, wooden structure, with steeply slanting* roof.

The girls and boys of our school are *kind and agreeable* to their playmates, and *respectful* and *obedient* to their teachers.

tall	low	pale	wooden
rich	kind	lean	spacious
ripe	brave	useful	slanting
wild	noble	delicate	obedient
high	happy	beautiful	agreeable
large	strong	contented	respectful
juicy	slender	ornamental	good-natured

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 99.—*Write a composition with the title “My Favorite Book,” using the following hints:—*

What is its title? Who is the author? Is it illustrated? A story? Written in poetry? What is in it that especially interests you? How much did the book cost? Where did you get it?

KINDS OF VERBS.

Lesson 100.—Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

The sun shines.	Bees make — honey.
The child laughs.	Clara caught — Mary.

Examine the above sentences. What difference do you discover between the verbs?

Which of the verbs are followed by nouns?

Is it necessary that *shines* and *laughs* be followed by another word to complete the sense?

Clara caught *whom*? Bees make *what*?

Must words be added to *caught* and *make* to complete their meaning?

Verbs like *caught* and *make*, which require an object to complete their meaning, are called *transitive verbs*.

Verbs like *shines* and *laughs*, which do not require an object to complete their meaning, are called *intransitive verbs*.

The same verb may be either transitive or intransitive; as, "The child *sees* the house" (transitive). "The child *sees* clearly" (intransitive).

Lesson 101.—Classify the verbs. Name the subject of each verb. Name the object of each transitive verb:—

Flowers grow in gardens.

The swan eats water-plants.

Bees fill their cells with honey.

Honest men nearly always succeed.
 Some flowers have a sweet perfume.
 The waters glide like happiness away.
 The world of birds is the world of song.
 The world of fishes is the world of silence.
 Vicious people generally corrupt their associates.
 Leaves absorb the poisons in the atmosphere ; flowers
 exhale them.

Lesson 102.—*Form sentences containing the following verbs. Which verbs are transitive ? Name the object of each :—*

row	sow	grow	look	sails
walk	bring	make	eats	taste
shone	spoke	roars	touch	watched

Lesson 103.—*The Indirect Object.*

Some transitive verbs take two objects—one direct, the other indirect ; as, “I gave him a book” (gave to him). Name the direct and indirect objects in these sentences :—

He taught us *music*.
 I will show you the *place*.
 He compelled him *to come*.
 I command you *to be silent*.
 They blamed him *for leaving*.
 He called the boy *a wise lad*.

KINDS OF ADVERBS.

Lesson 104.—*Adverbs used in Sentences.*

A girl sings *very* sweetly.

A boy writes *exceedingly* well.

A bird flies *most* swiftly.

Sweetly tells of what? (Of *singing*.)

How sweetly does the girl sing?

What word tells the degree of sweetness?

The word *very* belongs to what? Qualifies what?

Well tells what? Manner of what? It belongs to what? It qualifies what word?

Exceedingly tells the degree of what? To what does it belong? It qualifies what?

What word tells the manner of flying? It belongs to what? It qualifies what?

What word tells the degree of swiftness? It belongs to what? It qualifies what?

The words *sweetly*, *well*, and *swiftly* describe the manner in which the actions are performed.

Very, *exceedingly*, and *most* describe the actions more fully by telling the *degree* of sweetness, etc.; they tell *how sweetly*, *how well*, *how swiftly*.

Because *very*, *exceedingly*, and *most* help to describe actions, they are called *adverbs*.

Adverbs of degree also modify adjectives; as, “The day is *slightly* warm.”

All words denoting time, place, manner, degree, cause, or reason are adverbs.

Adverb of *Time* : The sun will rise *to-morrow*.

Adverb of *Place* : The snow is deep *there*.

Adverb of *Manner* : The moon is shining *brightly*.

Adverb of *Degree* : It is *extremely* cold.

Adverb of *Cause* : *Therefore* came I unto thee.

An adverb used to perform the office of an adverb and a connective is called a *conjunctive adverb*. “Lilies grow where the ground is moist.” Here, *where* not only joins the two sentences, but it also modifies the verb in each.

Lesson 105.—*Classify the adverbs in the following sentences, and state to what each belongs:—*

The sun sinks slowly.

Always speak the truth.

How dark the clouds are.

Too many eyes are gazing.

Therefore shall I leave thee.

William went there yesterday.

A gentleman answers courteously.

James is a very pleasant companion.

The man walks slowly; he is very old.

A Russian drives very rapidly on an extremely cold day.

We had a pleasant walk to-day,
Over the meadows and far away.

Lesson 106.—*Write sentences containing,—*

An adverb of <i>time</i> .	An adverb of <i>cause</i> .
An adverb of <i>place</i> .	An adverb of <i>degree</i> .

An adverb of *manner*.

An exclamatory sentence containing an adverb of *degree*.

An exclamatory sentence containing an adverb of *manner*.

An imperative sentence containing an adverb of *time*.

An interrogative sentence containing an adverb of *place*.

Lesson 107.—*Change the following adjectives to adverbs, and then use each in a sentence:—*

EXAMPLE.—He walked across the floor very softly.

soft	just	neat	bright	scornful
loud	swift	rapid	excited	eloquent
wise	sweet	warm	cheerful	mournful
hasty	elegant	honest	graceful	contented

COMPOSITION.**Lesson 108.**—*Take for your subject "My Own Life," using these suggestions:—*

My name. When and where I was born. Something about my parents, their names, occupations, etc. First recollections of home, of school, teachers, studies. Events of interest which I remember. My present age. The trade or business I would like best.

FORMS OF NOUNS.

Lesson 109.—*Gender-forms of Nouns.*

Man, boy, brother, gentleman.

Woman, girl, sister, lady, queen.

Book, slate, desk, pencil, window.

Of what sex is a man, a boy, etc.?

Of what sex is a woman, a girl, etc.?

Of what sex is a book, a slate, etc.?

A noun like *man*, which stands for one of the *male sex*, is said to be in the *masculine gender*.

A noun like *woman*, which stands for one of the *female sex*, is said to be in the *feminine gender*.

A noun like *book*, which stands for a thing without life, is said to be in the *neuter gender*; that is, of *neither* or *no* gender.

Words like *parent* and *child*, that may be used for either sex, are said to be of the *common gender*, when we do not know which sex is meant.

The gender of nouns may be distinguished in three ways:—

(1) By the use of different words; as, *father*, *mother*, *uncle*, *aunt*.

(2) By the use of different terminations; as, *actor*, *actress*; *widow*, *widower*.

(3) By prefixing a different word; as, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*.

NOTE.—Marks to distinguish the feminine of many common words are now less used than formerly. *Poetess*, *authoress*, *editress*, for instance, have gone almost entirely out of use.

Lesson 110.—*Number-forms of Nouns.*

The fire burns.

The flag waves.

The boys recite.

The stars twinkle.

Name the nouns in the first and second sentences. Do they mean one or more than one? Name the nouns in the second and third sentences. Do they mean one or more than one?

A noun that denotes one object is in the *singular number*.

A noun that denotes more than one object is in the *plural number*.

Lesson 111.—*Formation of the Plural.*

The plural of nouns ending in *s*, *ch*, *sh*, or *x* is formed by adding *es* to the singular.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
toy	toys	lady	ladies
key	keys	story	stories

The plural of nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a *vowel*, is formed by adding *s*.

The plural of nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a *consonant*, is formed by changing *y* to *i*, and adding *es*.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
leaf	leaves	life	lives
loaf	loaves	wife	wives

A few nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plural by changing *f* to *ve*, and adding *s*.

Most words ending in *f*, however, form their plural by simply adding *s*; as, *gulf*, *roof*.

Most nouns ending in o form their plural by adding s; as,—

solo	piano	studio	duo	two
folio	cameo	domino	alto	portfolio

A few nouns ending in o form their plural by adding es; as,—

hero	calico	potato	motto	echo
negro	volcano	tomato	mosquito	buffalo

Some nouns form the plural by changing the vowel sound of the singular; as,—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
mouse	mice	tooth	teeth
woman	women	goose	geese

Some nouns have the same form for the singular and plural; as,—

A *sheep* is lying in the shade.

These *sheep* are eating grass.

A *deer* was shot by the hunter.

Several *deer* were drinking from the brook.

Lesson 112.—*The following nouns have only the plural form:—*

ashes	tongs	hose	goods	breeches
scissors	clothes	victuals	trousers	spectacles

Tongs are made of iron.
 The *ashes* were in the pan.
 Are the *scissors* very sharp?
 The *clothes* were given to the poor.
 Silk *hose* are imported from France.

There are three 5's in 555.
 Count the +'s in the example.
 How many p's are there in happy?

Tell how the plurals of figures, letters, and signs are formed. By adding what to the singular?

Spoonful is in the singular number, and forms the plural by adding *s*, making *spoonfuls*.

Tea-spoonful, *table-spoonful*, and most compounds follow the same rule.

Give me two *cupfuls* of water.
 He drank two *pailfuls* of water.
 Take three *spoonfuls* every hour.
 He took three *handfuls* of barley.

Lesson 113.—Write ten sentences, using the following words correctly. Use the dictionary:—

necessary	essential
strange	mysterious
gratitude	thankfulness
complete	perfect
basis	foundation

Lesson 114.—*Case-forms of Nouns.*

The boy ran.

The man caught the boy.

The boy's hat was lost.

In which sentence is *boy* the subject? In which is it the object? In which does the form of the word denote possession?

The word *boy* stands in a different relation in each of the sentences. In the first sentence, it bears the relation of *subject* to the verb *ran*. In the second sentence, the word *boy* bears the relation of *object* to the verb *caught*. In the third sentence, the word *boy's* and the word *hat* are in a certain relation to each other—the boy is the *possessor* of the *hat*. These relations which the noun takes to some other word in the sentence, are called *cases*.

When a noun is the *subject* of a sentence, it is said to be in the *nominative case*.

When a noun is the *object* of a verb, it is said to be in the *objective case*.

When a noun is in that form which denotes *possession*, it is said to be in the *possessive case*.

A *predicate noun* is said to be in the *nominative case*.

Prepositions have *objects* as well as verbs. In the sentence, "He came from Boston," *Boston* is the object of a relation expressed by the preposition *from*.

Nouns have only one case-form—the possessive. The nominative and objective are alike in form, and the difference can only be known by seeing whether the noun is the *subject* or *object* of the sentence.

Lesson 115.—*Possessive Nouns.*

A boy's hat.

Three boys' hats.

A bird's nest.

Many birds' nests.

A girl's bonnet.

Ten girls' bonnets.

Who owns the hat? The nest? The bonnet?

Why have we put an apostrophe (') and *s* after the noun *boy*? (To denote ownership or possession.)After the noun *bird*? After the noun *girl*?

Look at each noun which denotes possession, and tell whether it means one or more than one.

What is added to each noun that means but one, to make it denote possession?

What mark is added to each noun that means more than one, to denote possession?

The men's coats are new.

The women's hands are weary.

The children's parents have come.

Name the possessive nouns. Do the plurals end in *s*?

What are added to denote possession?

How is the possessive of singular nouns formed?

The possessive of plural nouns ending in *s*?The possessive of plural nouns not ending in *s*?Nouns which do not end in *s* have an apostrophe and an *s* added to them.Nouns ending in *s*, or the sound of *s*, take an apostrophe only.

NOTE.—When the thing possessed is the common property of two or more persons, the last noun only takes the possessive sign; as, Henry and William's boat. To denote separate possession, the sign should be repeated; as, Henry's and William's boats.

Lesson 116.—*A noun in the possessive form is sometimes equivalent to a phrase.*

Change the words in italics to phrases. Which sentences are made more elegant by the change?—

The *lion's roar* is terrible.

A *sister's love* is precious.

The *winter's cold* has gone.

The *mountain's top* is white.

The *sun's heat* melts the snow.

The *rainbow's tints* were beautiful.

My *father's command* was obeyed.

The *flower's fragrance* filled the air.

We could smell the *violet's perfume*.

The *children's father* was lost at sea.

The *lady's hands* were soft and white.

The *orator's speech* was much admired.

The *city's smoke* curled gracefully upward.

America's rivers are the largest in the world.

General Washington's army suffered from cold.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 117.—*Write a letter to a friend describing the place in which you live, telling,—*

Name, State, and county; on what water. Size: compare with some other city or town. Streets: of what material. Public buildings, stores, post-office, court-house, library, park, monuments, etc. Manufactures: what kind, leading factories, commerce, with what cities. Suburbs: natural scenery.

FORMS OF PRONOUNS.

Lesson 118.—*A pronoun is said to be declined when its numbers and cases are regularly arranged; thus,—*

		Nominative.	Possessive.	Objective.
<i>First Person.</i>	Singular :	I,	my or mine,	me.
	Plural :	we,	our or ours,	us.
<i>Second Person.</i>	Singular :	thou,	thy or thine,	thee.
	Plural :	ye or you,	your or yours,	you.
<i>Third Person.</i>	Sing. Masc. :	he,	his,	him.
	Sing. Fem. :	she,	her or hers,	her.
	Sing. Neuter :	it,	its,	it.
	Plural :	they,	their or theirs,	them.
Singular or Plural :		who	whose	whom.

Learn the ten nominative forms; the nine objective forms.

The pronouns *you, your, yours*, are used in the singular, though plural in form.

Forms of pronouns to denote possession, when used with a noun, are: *My, our, thine, your, his, her, its, their.*

When the noun is omitted, they are: *Mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its, theirs.*

We can say equally well:—

This book is my book; or, This book is mine.

This house is our house; or, This house is ours.

That slate is your slate; or, That slate is yours.

The apostrophe is never used in writing the possessive form of a pronoun.

Lesson 119.—*How to use Pronouns.*

Do not use the objective form of a pronoun as the subject of a verb. You would not say, "Me goes to school." Then do not say, "Flora and me go to school," for—

Flora and I go to school.

Do not use the nominative form of a pronoun as the object of a transitive verb. You would not say, "He saw I." Then do not say, "He saw Harry and I," for—

He saw Harry and me.

You and I study.

You and he study.

He and I study.

Notice the position of the pronouns in the preceding sentences. The second person precedes pronouns of what person? The third person precedes what person? Would it be polite to use the pronoun referring to yourself first?

Lesson 120.—*In the following examples, observe the position of the pronouns. Then supply the proper ones in these sentences:—*

You, he, and I will go.

You, Clara, and I will go.

Charles, father, and I will go.

— and Alice sing sweetly.

Mary and — are the same age.

— and — live in the country.

— and her brother visited Europe.

He and — and — are going home.

—, Sarah, and — have played together.

— and — and — were members of the class.

Lesson 121.—Forms used as objects of Prepositions.

Prepositions are followed by the objective forms of pronouns. Would you say "They came for I," or "They came for me"? Then say—

They came for John and me.

*Use that form of the pronoun which you think is correct.
Give the reason for your choice:—*

(Who, whom) did you speak to?

To (who, whom) did you speak?

I sang with (she, her) and (he, him).

He spoke to Clara and (I, me).

(Who, whom) did you give the money to?

You may go with Sarah and (he, him).

It was divided between you and (I, me).

This house belongs to (she, her) and (he, him).

It was a secret between (they, them) and (we, us).

He is a friend to (who, whom) I am greatly indebted.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 122.—Describe a party, telling,—

By whom given. Describe a few of the guests.
Music. The dancing. The supper, when served. Close, time. Return home.

Lesson 123.—*The Pronoun and its Antecedent.*

The *boy* said *he* would study.

The *boys* said *they* would study.

Mary and Anna remember what *they* learn.

Mary or Anna remembers what *she* learns.

The pronoun *he* stands for what noun in the first sentence? The noun for which a pronoun stands is called what? (Antecedent.)

What is the antecedent of *he*? In what number is the noun *boy*? The pronoun *he* is in the same number as what word?

What is the antecedent of *they* in the second sentence? In what number is it? A pronoun must be in the same number as what?

What are the antecedents of *they* in the third sentence? A pronoun should have what form when it has two or more antecedents taken together?

For what is the pronoun *she* used in the fourth sentence? A pronoun should have what form when it represents two or more antecedents taken *separately*?

Each of the boys thinks *he* is right.

Every one of the girls says *she* will try.

Either of the men will do *his* duty.

The pronoun *he* is used in place of what noun? The pronoun *she*? The pronoun *his*? In what number is the noun for which each stands? The pronouns *he*, *she*, and *his* are in the same number as what word? What is that word called?

Pronouns agree in number, gender, and person with the nouns they represent.

If one of the antecedents connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the pronoun must agree with the plural antecedent; thus, "Neither the captain nor the *soldiers* showed *themselves* during the attack."

A pronoun of the masculine gender is commonly used when the antecedent may refer to either sex; as, "Each *pupil* must do *his* own work."

Care must be taken in referring to singular nouns of different genders. "Every boy or girl may keep *his* or *her* book," though correct, is awkward. Better change the form of expression and say, "All the boys and girls may keep *their* books."

Lesson 124.—*Explain in each example below the rule in Lesson 123:—*

No one should neglect his work.

Let every girl obey her teacher.

Every tree is known by its fruit.

Ask Mary or Anna for her pencil.

No person should boast of himself.

Every one must speak for himself.

Each man walks with his head erect.

Each girl brought her book with her.

Let each of them be heard in his turn.

Each of the ladies was perfect in her part.

All the pupils must try to get their lessons.

Neither John nor James recited his lessons perfectly.

I wish every one would do his work as well as he can.

Each cold day is disagreeable, and I am glad to see it go.

FORMS OF ADJECTIVES.

Lesson 125.—*Comparison.*

New-York has over one million inhabitants.

Paris has over two million inhabitants.

London has over three million inhabitants.

We say New-York is *large*. What adjective describes Paris? What, London?

Which quality has each of these cities? (Size.)

What has the least of these qualities?

Which possesses it in a higher degree?

Which possesses it in a degree still higher?

Write the three adjectives that express these degrees of quality.

Compare three objects of unequal length. We say one is *long*. What adjective describes the next in length? What adjective describes the one that has the quality in the highest degree? Write the adjectives that represent the three degrees of quality.

Of how many oceans are you talking when you say, "The Atlantic Ocean is the *larger*"; "The Pacific Ocean is the *largest*"?

Of how many rivers are you speaking when you say, "The Amazon is the *longer*"; "The Mississippi is the *longest*"?

Of how many islands are you speaking when you say, "Borneo is a *larger* island than Ireland"; "Australia is the *largest* island in the world"?

When should you say *sweeter*? *sweetest*? *smaller*? *smallest*? *taller*? *tallest*?

How have you expressed different degrees of the quality of objects? (By changing the *form* of the adjective.) Adjectives have how many forms or degrees to express comparison?

There are three degrees of comparison: the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

An adjective that expresses quality without comparison is in the *positive degree*; as, "The *wise* man."

An adjective which denotes that an object possesses a higher or lower degree of the quality than another with which it is compared, is in the *comparative degree*; as, "The *wiser* man"; "The *less wise* man."

An adjective which denotes that one of several objects possesses the highest or lowest degree of the quality, is in the *superlative degree*; as, "The *wisest* man"; "The *least wise* man."

Lesson 126.—*Examine the following adjectives. How is the comparative degree formed? By adding what to the positive? How is the superlative formed? By adding what to the positive?—*

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
soft	softer	softest
cold	colder	coldest
high	higher	highest
great	greater	greatest
pretty	prettier	prettiest

Lesson 127.—*Examine the following. The comparative is sometimes formed how? By placing what before the positive? The superlative? By placing what before the positive?—*

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
useful	more useful	most useful
cunning	more cunning	most cunning
eloquent	more eloquent	most eloquent
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
wholesome	more wholesome	most wholesome

Lesson 128.—*Some adjectives are compared by using different words. Learn the following list:—*

good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
ill		
evil		
little	less	least
much	more	most
many		
near	nearer	nearest or next
old	older or elder	oldest or eldest
far	farther	farthest
late	later	latest or last

Write two sentences, using adjectives of *positive degree*.

Two sentences, using *comparative degree*.

Two sentences, using *superlative degree*.

Use a *superlative* in describing Paris. Use a *superlative* in describing London.

Lesson 129.—*How to Use Adjectives.*

Place *a* before the word *apple*. Place *an* before it. Place *a* before the words *book*, *elk*, *inkstand*, *picture*, *orange*, and *upper*. Place *an* before each of the preceding words. Which sounds the better?

The letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, are vowels.

The letters *b* and *p* are consonants.

A is used before words beginning with what sound?

An is used before words beginning with what sound?

A is used before *unit*, *eulogy*, *ewe*, *one*; *an* before *hour* and *herb*. Why?

this book	that house	this sort	this kind
these books	those houses	that sort	that kind

From the above examples answer the following questions:—

With what form of the noun is the word *this* used? The word *that*? The word *these*? The word *those*?

Never use the pronoun *them* for *these* or *those*. Say, *those apples*, not *them apples*.

With an adjective denoting more than one, a plural noun should be used. Say *ten pounds*, not *ten pound*; *six feet wide*, not *six foot wide*.

Adjectives should be so placed as to show clearly to what nouns they belong. We should say, *a glass of cool water*, not *a cool glass of water*; *a basket of fresh eggs*, not *a fresh basket of eggs*; *a bottle of good ink*, not *a good bottle of ink*.

Lesson 130.—*Use the comparative form in comparing two objects, the superlative in comparing more than two objects. Thus:—*

Which is *heavier*,—iron or gold?

Which is *heaviest*,—iron, gold, or tin?

When two or more things are meant, *a*, *an*, or *the* should be placed before each noun. Thus:—

A blue and a white dress. (Two dresses.)

A blue and white dress. (One dress of two colors.)

Adjectives modifying the same noun in an equal degree are generally placed in the order of their length, the shortest first. Thus:—

A large and comfortable room.

A moist, unhealthy, and most disagreeable climate.

Avoid the use of extravagant adjective terms. Learn the meaning of the following words, and try to use each in its proper sense: *Nice, lovely, splendid, glorious, magnificent, delicious, exquisite, awful*, etc.

Lesson 131.—*Christmas Vacation.*

When did it begin? When end? How long did it last? We celebrated what?—and then one week later, what? Who had a Christmas-tree? What have you done with it? Have you remembered the poor? Any visitor? Made a journey?

FORMS OF ADVERBS.

Lesson 132.—*Comparison.*

Many adverbs, like adjectives, can be compared. Most of them can be compared by prefixing *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*; as,—

wisely	more wisely	most wisely
pleasantly	less pleasantly	least pleasantly

Others take *er* and *est*; as,—

soon	sooner	soonest
often	oftener	oftenest

A few are compared irregularly; as,—

well	better	best
much	more	most
late	later	latest
ill	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest

Lesson 133.—*Place of Adverbs in a Sentence.*

Adverbs should, as a rule, be placed next to the words they are intended to affect.

Notice the position of the adverb in the following sentences. Where is it placed when the predicate consists of more than one word?

He *rashly* boasted his power.

He *quickly* left the room. (Quickly what?)

He can *certainly* be elected.
 The girls are *always* laughing.
 I shall *readily* grant your request.
 He might *easily* have learned the lesson.
 They were dressed *nearly* alike. (Nearly what?)
 It has been *properly* answered. (Properly what?)
 The juggler's skill appeared *almost* miraculous. (Almost what?)

Lesson 134.—The use of “only” and “quickly” in sentences.

The word *only* requires careful use. Observe the difference in the meaning of,—

He *only* sang once.
 He sang *only* once.

The two sentences should be explained thus: (1) He did no more than sing,—did nothing else. (2) He sang once,—not oftener.

Change the position of “only” in each sentence. What change is made in the meaning?—

He *only* spoke to me.
Only I saw the accident.
 He shaves *only* on Sunday.
 He cries *only* when he is hurt.
 We ate *only* three meals to-day.
 Men rise in the world *only* by perseverance.

Express different ideas by adding the word “quickly” to the following sentences:—

He dropped the purse and left the room.

I determined to seize him and hurl him from my path.

An adverb should not be placed between the infinitive and its sign. We should say, "I told him to leave quickly," not "I told him to quickly leave."

Lesson 135.—*In the following sentences, place the adverbs in such a position as will leave no doubt as to what they are intended to modify:—*

He goes generally on Monday.

She only solved three problems.

Finally the noise began to subside.

I had to almost compel him to go.

He is so feeble he hardly can walk.

Tea chiefly comes from China and Japan.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 136.—*Hints for the Composition.*

When you are describing anything, endeavor to *see* it, and describe it as you see it. Mention events in the order of their occurrence.

Describe "A Journey." Tell time and place of starting; mode of travel—car, boat, etc.; countries passed through—level, hilly, cultivated; objects seen on the way; arrival at destination.

Lesson 137.—*Order of Phrases in Sentences.*

When a sentence contains two or more phrases, one of them may introduce the sentence; thus, "*At day-break, the army assaulted the city by sea and land.*" Notice that the introductory phrase is cut off by a comma.

Improve the following sentences by changing the position of phrases:—

EXAMPLE.—Niagara Falls is the greatest natural wonder of the New World in my opinion.

CHANGED.—In my opinion, Niagara Falls is the greatest natural wonder of the New World; or—

Niagara Falls is, in my opinion, the greatest natural wonder of the New World.

A tear is due, *at least*, to the fallen brave.

The vase lay upon the floor, *broken in pieces*.

The men ran away *at the first appearance of danger*.

Flowers display the goodness of God *in a striking manner*.

The weary traveler sank down to rest, *overcome with fatigue*.

We arrived, *about the middle of the day*, in Paris.

The sea is a most beautiful object in a calm, moonlight night.

Bees do not confine themselves solely to flowers in collecting honey.

The Laplander defies the severity of his native climate, *wrapt up in his deer-skins*.

The army assaulted the city by sea and land at day-break, without the customary signal of a morning-gun.

Lesson 138.—Before filling the blanks in the following sentences, ask yourself whether it is the intention to express quality of a thing or manner of an action. Give a reason for the term selected:—

The birds sing —. (Beautiful or beautifully?)
 We felt — all day. (Comfortable or comfortably?)
 The days fly —. (Swift or swiftly?)
 She walks —. (Graceful or gracefully?)
 She looks — in that dress. (Graceful or gracefully?)
 He spoke — and —. (Clear and distinct, or clearly and distinctly?)
 The moon shines —. (Bright or brightly?)
 The moon shines — on the water. (Bright or brightly?)
 The old man looks —. (Sad or sadly?)
 Did they read —? (Correct or correctly?)
 The mountains look —. (Grand or grandly?)
 When I call, come —. (Quick or quickly?)
 Riding — is tiresome. (Slow or slowly?)
 How are you? I am — well. (Tolerable or tolerably.)
 John arrived —. (Safe or safely? Do you wish to express the *state* in which John was when he arrived, or the *manner* of his arrival?)
 This is — stormy weather. (Real or really?)
 This is a — good apple. (Real or really?)
 The girl talks too —. (Loud or loudly?)
 We feel —. (Warm or warmly?)
 We feel — the insult. (Warm or warmly?)
 I slept — last night. (Good or well?)
 He walked —. (Rapid or rapidly?)

FORMS OF VERBS.

Lesson 139.—*Number-Forms.*

The boy runs.
The bird sings.
The lamp burns.

How many boys are spoken of in the first sentence?
How many birds in the second sentence? How many
lamps in the third?

The boys run.
The birds sing.
The lamps burn.

How many boys are spoken of now? (More than
one.) How many birds? How many lamps?

What change is made in the form of the verbs when
more than one thing is spoken of? (The *s* is *dropped*.)

A verb may change its form to agree with the num-
ber of its subject.

Hence, verbs are said to agree with their subjects in
number.

Lesson 140.—*Number—Continued.*

Mary and Laura are calling us.
Mary or Laura is calling us.

What is the subject in the first sentence? Mary and
Laura mean how many persons?

Is the verb in the singular or plural form?

A subject whose meaning is plural requires what form of verb?

Look at the second sentence. How many are calling?

Mary *or* Laura means how many? (One person.)

In what form is the verb?

A subject whose meaning is singular requires what form of verb?

When two singular nouns are names for the same subject, the verb has, commonly, the singular form; as, "The *wheel* and *axle* *was* out of repair."

When singular subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the verb is singular; as, "Each lady and gentleman *has* a copy."

If subjects connected by *or* or *nor* differ in number, the verb agrees with the one nearest to it; as, "Neither the man nor the boys *were* present."

Each (boy) of the boys was rewarded.

Every one of the boys was promoted.

Either (girl) of these girls is willing to work.

Neither of the men is industrious.

Mistakes are frequently made in sentences like the above. Can you tell why? What is the subject in the first sentence? Is it in the singular or plural form? In what form should the verb be then?

In what form is the verb in the second sentence? Is it correct? Why?

Is it correct to use the singular form of verb in the third and fourth sentences? Why?

Lesson 141.—*Explain in each example that a verb must agree with its subject in number:—*

Neither of the boats was lost.
 Either of you is able to lift it.
 No book and no paper is torn.
 No one of the animals is dangerous.
 No house, no fence, no tree, was left.
 Neither he nor his children were saved.
 Every man, woman, and child was lost.
 Each of the girls has studied the lesson.
 Every heart and eye was filled with pity.
 Every tall tree and every steeple was blown down.
 If any one thinks differently, he may raise his hand.

Lesson 142.—*Person-Forms.*

I am a pupil.
 You are a soldier.
 He is a merchant.

What is the person of the subject in the first sentence? In the second sentence? In the third?

Notice what changes take place in the form of the verb when used with pronouns of the different persons.

Tell when and what changes are made in the verbs in the following sentences:—

I write.	I have written.
He writes.	He has written.

A verb may change its form to agree with the person of its subject.

Hence, verbs are said to agree with their subjects in person.

Lesson 143.—Fill blanks with appropriate noun-subjects. Explain in each example the rule that a verb must agree with its subject in number:—

— walk. — laugh. — roar.
 — write. — skate. — pray.

Your statements tell about how many things?

Change each statement so that it will tell about one object only.

Supply subjects to complete the following sentences:—

— was seen. — raises wheat.
 — has a new book. — fade and die.
 — have gone away. — wear crowns.
 — love their mother. — please their teacher.
 — sleeps in a basket. — were paid yesterday.

Lesson 144.—Change the number or person of the subject, and make the verb follow the rule that a verb must agree with its subject in number and person:—

All men have their frailties.

We are honest boys. (I am.)

That man has an ax to grind.

A rolling stone gathers no moss.

“Is he an American?” asked Otto.

These flowers do not grow in winter.

A good book is a pleasant companion.

Where are the flowers, the fair young flowers?

Sweet flowers are slow, but weeds make haste.

The moss-covered bucket which hangs in the well.

For him a blade of grass
Waves pleasure as it grows.

The boatmen row,
And to the Inchcape Rock they go.

The mariners hear the warning bell,
And then they know the perilous rock.

Lesson 145.—*Tell the difference in the meanings of the words in each of the following groups. Use the dictionary:—*

Guess; suspect; suppose.
Answer; respond; reply.
Catch; seize; snatch.
Calm; serene; placid.
Wages; salary; income.
Noted; famous; notorious.
Relate; narrate; rehearse.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 146.—*Take for your subject “Rivers.” Learn the answers to these questions and you will not find it hard to write a composition:—*

In what ways are rivers useful? How do rivers help in carrying on commerce? Name some rivers that do this. Can you name a river that has an annual overflow? Of what advantage is this to the countries through which it flows? How are rivers useful to people who live in large cities? Where does the water in rivers come from? Where does the water go?

Lesson 147.—*Time Expressed by Verbs.*

I see you.

I saw you.

I shall see you.

Which verb represents the *seeing* as taking place now, at the *present time*?

Which implies that I saw you yesterday, or last week, or at some other *past time*?

Which implies that I will see you to-morrow, or next week, or at some other *future time*?

Can you think of a time that is neither present, past, nor future?

Then what are the three divisions of time?

The boys *write* letters.

The boys *wrote* letters.

The boys *will write*.

The boys *have written*.

The boys *had written* before they went home.

The boys *will have written* before they recite.

What time is expressed by *write*?

What time is expressed by *wrote*?

What time is expressed by *will write*?

In the fourth sentence, what words represent the writing as perfected or finished at the present?

In the fifth sentence, what words represent the writing as perfected before some past time mentioned in the sentence?

In the sixth sentence, what words represent the writing as perfected before some future time stated in the sentence?

Lesson 148.—Tense-Forms.

All actions must be done in one of three principal divisions of time; either in *present* time, *past* time, or *future* time.

As *tense* means *time*, we call each of these divisions of time a *tense*; hence, there are *three principal tenses* : —

- The *present* tense.
- The *past* tense.
- The *future* tense.

Then there are three forms for speaking of an action as *completed* (or perfected) in each of these three divisions. They are as follows: —

- The *present perfect* tense.
- The *past perfect* tense.
- The *future perfect* tense.

There are, therefore, six tenses: *present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect*.

Lesson 149.—Manner of Asserting.

- James runs.
- James can run.
- Run, James.
- If James run, he will fall.

Which verb *indicates*, or points out, what James *actually* does?

Which asserts the *power* James has to perform the action of running?

Which is used to express a *command* or request?

Which affirms the action of running as a condition on which another action—that of falling—will be done?

There are four different manners or *modes* of speaking of an action.

When a verb simply asserts an action, it is said to be in the *indicative mode*.

When a verb denotes power, permission, or necessity, it is said to be in the *potential mode*.*

When a command is expressed, the verb is said to be in the *imperative mode*.

When the verb expresses an uncertainty or condition, the verb is in the *subjunctive mode*.

Verbs which help in expressing the time of an action or the manner of its assertion are called *helping*, or *auxiliary*, verbs.

The auxiliaries are *do*, *does*, *did*, *have*, *has*, *had*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.

Lesson 150.—Tell the mode of each verb in the following sentences, and the manner of action each expresses; as,—

He could walk.

“*Could walk* is a verb in the potential mode, because it asserts the power or ability of walking”:

* The potential mode is formed by the use of the verbs *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*. *May* or *might* is used to express the permission or possibility of an action; *can* or *could* asserts the power or ability to perform an action; *must* expresses the necessity of an action.

A bird can fly.
The wind blows.
We must go early.
Thou shalt not steal.
You may go to-morrow.
If it rain, I shall not go.
I would go if I were you.
The heat might burn you.

Do all which truth bids thee, and do it to-day;
Hold on to thy purpose, do right, persevere.

Lesson 151.—Write a Sentence,—

To state a fact.
To express a command.
Using *can* to express ability.
Using *must* to express necessity.
Using *may* to express permission.
Using *might* to express possibility.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 152.—The United States.

Write a composition on the United States, writing a paragraph on each of the following topics: Boundaries. Extent from north to south, from east to west. Surface, two mountain systems, a large and fertile valley. Rivers, a few of the largest. Climate, in the south, in the north. Productions, from the central part, from the southern part; the minerals found in nearly every part. Cities, ten of the largest.

CONJUGATION.

The regular arrangement of a verb in its modes, tenses, numbers, and persons is called its *conjugation*.

Lesson 153.—Conjugation of the verb “play.”

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present: play or plays (3d per. sing.).

Past: played.

Future: shall or will play.

Pres. Per.: have played or has played (3d per. sing.).

Past Per.: had played.

Future Per.: shall or will have played.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present: may, can, must play.

Past: might, could, would, should play.

Pres. Per.: may, can, must have played.

Past Per.: might, could, would, should have played.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present: play.

Past: played.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present: play, with a subject in second person.

INFINITIVES.

Present: (to) play.

Pres. Per.: (to) have played.

PARTICIPLES.

Present: playing.

Past: played.

Perfect: having played.

Lesson 154.—*Conjugation of the verb "be."*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present : am.*Past* : was.*Perfect* : been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i> Sing.	<i>Past Tense.</i> Sing.	<i>Future Tense.</i> Sing. and Plur.
1. am	1. was	
2. are	2. were	3. was
3. is		were. shall or will be.

<i>Present Perfect.</i> Sing. and Plu.	<i>Past Perfect.</i> Sing. and Plu.	<i>Future Perfect.</i> Sing. and Plu.
have been	had been	shall or will have been
has been (3d per. sing.).		

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present : may, can, must be. *Past* : might, could, would, should be. *Pres. Per.* : may, can, must have been. *Past Perfect* : might, could, would, should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.*

Present : be.*Past* : were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present : be, with subject in second person.

PARTICIPLES.

Present : being. *Past* : been. *Perfect* : having been.

INFINITIVES.

Present : (to) be. *Perfect* : (to) have been.

* Ideas formerly expressed by the subjunctive mode are now generally expressed by the indicative and potential.

Lesson 155.—Active and Passive Voice.

Bees make honey ; or—
Honey is made by bees.

In the first sentence, the subject stands for the one who acts, and the verb is said to be in the *active voice*.

In the second sentence, the subject stands for the thing acted upon, and the verb is said to be in the *passive voice*.

Make each of the following sentences state the fact in different ways. Observe the difference in construction caused by the change. The object of each sentence has been turned into what ? —

Heat expands metals.

The sun warms the earth.

A storm destroyed the tower.

Bad books injure the character.

Caucasians possess great beauty.

Everybody loves the sky-lark's song.

The farmer gathers his harvest in summer and autumn.

A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.

Lesson 156.—Regular and Irregular Verbs.

Present Tense.

hear

play

Past Tense.

hear-d

play-ed

Past Participle.

hear-d

play-ed

What three forms of the verb *hear* are given ? What letter is added to the present to express past time ?

What three forms of the verb *play* are given? What letters are added to the present to express past time?

A verb whose past tense and past participle are made by adding *d* or *ed* to the present form, is called a *regular verb*.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
see	saw	seen
write	wrote	written

Is *d* or *ed* added to the verb *see* to express past time? To the verb *write*?

Verbs whose past forms are not made in any regular way are *irregular verbs*.

The present, the past, and the past participle or completed form are called the *principal parts* of the verb. These are so called because all the other forms of the verb are derived from them.

COMPOSITION.

Lesson 157.—*Write a description of “Our Flag,” using the following questions as hints:—*

What is meant by the “Stars and Stripes”? When and where was the flag first used? How many stripes had it then? Of what color? How many stripes has it now? How many stars had it at first? Why? How many now? Why? Of what color? On what ground? When will other stars be added? What songs do you know about our flag? Which of them do you like best? Write a stanza of the song you prefer.

TABLE OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Lesson 158.—*The principal parts of some of the most important irregular verbs are as follows. Verbs marked R have also regular forms:—*

Present.	Past.	Past Part.	Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Am or be	was	been	Eat	{ ate	eaten
Arise	arose	arisen		{ eat	
Bear (carry)	bore	borne	Fall	fell	fallen
Become	became	become	Feel	felt	felt
Begin	began	begun	Fight	fought	fought
Behold	beheld	beheld	Find	found	found
Beseech	besought	besought	Flee	fled	fled
Bid	{ bade bid	bidden bid	Fling	flung	flung
Bind	bound	bound	Fly	flew	flown
Bite	bit	bitten	Forget	forgot	{ forgotten forgot
Bleed	bled	bled	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Blow	blew	blown	Freeze	froze	frozen
Break	broke	broken	Get	got	{ got gotten
Bring	brought	brought	Give	gave	given
Burn	burnt, R	burnt, R	Go	went	gone
Buy	bought	bought	Grind	ground	ground
Catch	caught	caught	Grow	grew	grown
Choose	chose	chosen	Have	had	had
Come	came	come	Hear	heard	heard
Dig	dug, R	dug, R	Hide	hid	{ hidden hid
Do	did	done	Hold	held	held
Draw	drew	drawn	Hurt	hurt	hurt
Drink	drank	drunk	Keep	kept	kept
Drive	drove	driven	Know	knew	known
Dwell	dwelt, R	dwelt, R			

FORMS OF VERBS.

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<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Lay	laid	laid	Sleep	slept	slept
Lead	led	led	Slide	slid	{ slid slidden
Leave	left	left	Speak	spoke	spoken
Lie(recline)	lay	lain	Spin	spun	spun
Lose	lost	lost	Spring	{ sprang sprung	sprung
Make	made	made	Stay	staid	staid
Mean	meant	meant	Steal	stole	stole
Meet	met	met	Stick	stuck	stuck
Pay	paid	paid	Sting	stung	stung
Read	read	read	Strike	struck	{ struck stricken
Ride	rode	{ ridden rode	Strive	strove	striven
Ring	{ rang rung	rung	Swear	swore	sworn
Rise	rose	risen	Sweep	swept	swept
Run	ran	run	Swim	{ swam swum	swum
Say	said	said	Swing	swung	swung
See	saw	seen	Take	took	taken
Seek	sought	sought	Teach	taught	taught
Sell	sold	sold	Tear	tore	torn
Set	set	set	Tell	told	told
Shake	shook	shaken	Think	thought	thought
Shine	shone, R	shone, R	Throw	threw	thrown
Shoot	shot	shot	Tread	trod	{ trodden trod
Show	showed	shown, R	Wear	wore	worn
Shrink	{ shrank shrunken	shrunken shrunken	Weave	wove	woven
Sing	{ sang sung	sung	Weep	wept	wept
Sink	{ sank sunk	sunk	Win	won	won
Sit	sat	sat	Wind	wound	wound
Slay	slew	slain	Wring	wrung	wrung
			Write	wrote	written

Lesson 159.—Errors in the use of Verbs.

There is little need of studying the regular verbs. Some of the irregular verbs, however, require very careful study, as mistakes in their use are frequent.

One of the most common errors is made by using the past participle for the past tense; as, "I *seen* a beautiful sunset last evening," instead of "I *saw* a beautiful sunset last evening."

Have, has, or had is sometimes placed before the past tense instead of the past participle; as, "I *have went* several times," instead of "I *have gone* several times."

The past participle form of the verb is commonly used with *has, have, had, having, be, am, is, are, was, were, being, or been*. The past form should *never* be used with one of these words.

Lesson 160.—Misuse of "may" and "can."

May and *can* are often confounded by careless speakers. *May* is properly used in asking permission; *can* when we doubt our ability to do a certain act. "May I go out?" asks permission to go out. "Can I do this?" means "Have I ability to do it?"

Explain the meaning of each of these sentences:—

May I go?

Yes, you *may* go.

Can I walk out?

Yes, you *can* walk out.

I *may* go. (Permission received.)

I *can* walk out.

Lesson 161.—*Write as directed:—*

Think of a pond and write sentences about it, using *freeze, froze, frozen*.

Write sentences, using the forms *draw, drew, drawn*.
Write a story about your kite, using *rise, rose, risen*.

Lesson 162.—*How to use "teach" and "learn."*

The word *teach* means *give instruction*; the word *learn* means *receive instruction*; as,—

Robert has learned to skate.

Charles taught him to skate.

Write a sentence containing the verb *teach*.

Write one containing the verb *learn*.

Write a sentence using the past form of *teach*.

Write one containing the past form of *learn*.

Write a sentence using the past participle of *teach*.

Write one using the past participle of *learn*.

Lesson 163.—*Use of the verb "lie."*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Part.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
lie	lay	lying	lain
lay	laid	laying	laid

The verb *lie*, meaning *to recline*, is an intransitive verb, and can have *no object* after it. It is correct to say,—

Lie down and rest. | He is lying down to rest.
He lay down to rest. | He has lain down to rest.

The verb *lay*, meaning *to place*, is a transitive verb, and requires an object. It is proper to say,—

Lay the book down.

He laid the book down.

He is laying the book down.

He has laid the book down.

Fill the blanks with some form of "lie" or "lay":—

— it on the table and let it — there.

I — the book on the table and there it —.

He — it away in the drawer, and there it — ever since.

Lesson 164.—*Write sentences showing the correct use of the following verbs:—*

lie	has lain	was lying
lies	were laid	have lain
laid	were laying	had laid

Lesson 165.—*Use of the verb "sit."*

Present.	Past.	Present Part.	Past Part.
sit	sat	sitting	sat
set	set	setting	set

The verb *sit*, which means *to rest*, is intransitive, and does not require an object; as,—

Sit near the fire.

He *sat* near the fire.

He is *sitting* near the fire.

He has *sat* down near the fire.

The verb *set*, which means *to place*, is transitive and requires an object; as,—

Set the pitcher down.

He *set* the pitcher down.

He is *setting* the pitcher down.

He has *set* the pitcher down.

Write sentences, using these verbs:—

sit	has sat	are sitting
set	have set	was sitting
sat	have sat	were setting

Lesson 166.—How to use “shall” and “will.”

Shall, when used with *I* or *we*, expresses merely what will take place; thus,—

“I shall go” means *I intend to go, in the future.*

“We shall go” means *we intend to go, in the future.*

In all other cases, “shall” expresses a promise, command, or determination; thus,—

You shall go.

You shall not lie.

They shall be punished.

Will is used with *I* or *we* to express a promise or determination; thus,—

“I will go” means *I promise to go or I am determined to go.*

In other cases, “will” is used to express what will take place; as,—

You will be a merchant.

James will succeed in business.

Lesson 167.—Say why “shall” is used correctly:—

I shall be glad to see you.
 I shall leave before Christmas.
 We shall be punished for this.
 You shall go when the order comes.
 Shall I be allowed to occupy this seat?
 You shall be rewarded for your trouble.
 I shall suffer if I do not take my overcoat.
 They shall be punished for their impertinence.

Lesson 168.—Say why “will” is used correctly:—

You will be ridiculed.
 He will do as you say.
 I will go in spite of opposition.
 He will come of his own accord.
 You will be punished if you do not reform.

In using *should*, follow the rules that apply to *shall*.
 In using *would*, follow the rules that apply to *will*.

COMPOSITION.**Lesson 169.—Write about “The Discovery of North America,” using the following questions as hints:—**

By whom discovered? When? How long ago?
 From what country did the discoverer sail? On what water?
 In what direction? Where did they land?
 Who were living here then? From what countries did most of the people come who settled America?
 Where did the English go? The French? The Spanish?

PREPOSITIONS.

Lesson 170.—*Errors in the use of Prepositions.*

We should be careful to employ prepositions in accordance with the best usage.

In is often used improperly for *into*. Observe the following sentences:—

James walked *into* the room.

He walked *in* the room.

Mary walked *into* the garden.

She walked *in* the garden.

The first sentence means that James entered the room. The second sentence means that he was in the room when he walked. Explain the third and fourth sentences.

Divide the apple *between* the two boys.

Divide the apple *among* the three girls.

Notice that “*between*” is used in speaking of two; and “*among*” in speaking of more than two.

We should say,—

Get *upon* the table. (Not *on* to it.)

I met him *in* the street. (Not *on* it.)

He is angry *with* his father. (Not *at*.)

We live *at* number nine *in* Beech Street.

I was *at* a large party last night. (Not *to*.)

He pointed *at* the house, or—

He pointed *toward* the house. (Not *to*.)

I have been *in* the city, or —

I went *to* the city. (Not I have been *to* the city.)

He is staying *at* a hotel *in* New York. (Not *in* a hotel.)

My book is different *from* yours. (Not different *to* or *than*.)

Lesson 171.—Use the following phrases in sentences; thus,—

He lives *at* the hotel.

He lives *with* his relatives.

He lives *in* Beacon Street.

The man was accused *of* theft.

He was accused *by* his friend.

fall into	die of	useful to
fall upon	die by	useful for
fall from	die for	placed in
fall under	taste of	placed upon
change to	taste for	careless of
change for	inquire of	careless in
change into	inquire for	careless about

Lesson 172.—Write sentences showing that you know the difference between,—

on and *upon*.

of and *for*.

in and *into*.

of and *from*.

below and *under*.

after and *from*.

across and *over*.

along and *beside*.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Lesson 173.—*Kinds of Conjunctions.*

Day ends and night begins.

The sun has set but the stars appear.

How many statements in the first sentence? Name them. Does each make sense when standing alone? Without the words *and*, *but*, we should write,—

Day ends. Night begins.

The sun has set. The stars appear.

The conjunctions *and*, *but*, are used to join statements that are equal to each other, and could stand alone.

Conjunctions that connect independent statements are called *co-ordinate conjunctions*.

But we may have two statements that are not independent:—

The day is warm *because* the sun shines.

The grass will dry *after* the sun has risen.

Here the second and less important statement merely qualifies the first and more important statement, just as an adverb qualifies a verb.

Conjunctions that connect dependent statements are called *subordinate conjunctions*.

“Co-ordinate” means of equal rank; “subordinate,” of inferior rank.

Lesson 174.—*Errors in the use of Conjunctions.*

In the following sentences observe that *neither* is used with *nor*, and *either* with *or*:—

Either Anna *or* John is here.

Neither Anna *nor* John is here.

Either the boy *or* the girl was disorderly.

The dog would *neither* eat *nor* permit the ox to eat.

The adverb *like* is often incorrectly used for *as* or *as if*. Notice that *like* is followed by an object only; *as*, by a sentence:—

Do *like* me.

Do *as* I do.

Read *like* him.

Read *as* he reads.

He acts *as if* he was crazy. (Not *like*.)

We should say, “I can not believe *but* he is innocent,” or “I can not believe *but that* he is innocent.” (Never *but what*.)

Without or *except* should not be used for *unless*; say, “I shall not remain *unless* you come early.”

Errors are frequent in the use of *if* for *whether*; say, “I’ll see *whether* it is time to go.”

The conjunction *and* should not be used instead of *to* before an infinitive; say,—

Come *to* see me soon. (Not come *and*, etc.)

Try *to* meet me at one o’clock. (Not try *and*, etc.)

ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Lesson 175.—*Analysis and Parsing.*

It is a very useful grammatical exercise to break up a sentence into its parts, and to say how those parts are related one to another. This is called *analysis*.

Another useful exercise is to take a sentence, and tell all that we know about each word in it. This is called *parsing* the word.

To parse a word completely is to tell,—

The *part of speech* to which the word belongs.

The *kind* of noun, adjective, verb, etc., it is.

Its *form*—number, person, case, tense, etc.

Its *use*, or what it has to do with some other word in the sentence.

When pupils have acquired a good degree of skill in full, systematic parsing, it may not be profitable to continue the practice. The plan indicated in the following lesson will, it is believed, familiarize pupils with the essential principles of grammar.

Lesson 176.—*Model for Study.*

In early spring, fragrant flowers grow in every sheltered nook.

Name the entire subject of the foregoing sentence.
The entire predicate.

Tell the use of the following words: *flowers, fragrant, grow, spring, early, nook, sheltered, every.*

Tell the use of the phrases, *in early spring*, and *in every sheltered nook*.

Give the *forms* of these words and tell when each should be used: *early*, *fragrant*, *sheltered*.

Give the *forms* of these words: *spring*, *flowers*, *nook*. When should each be used?

What time is expressed by the word *grow*? Name the principal parts of *grow*. Before which part may *have* be used?

Lesson 177.—*Analyze and parse in a similar way the following sentences:—*

The sunbeams chased the raindrops away.

The wild birds sang about our cottage home.

Nellie always speaks sweet and gentle words.

Tall, leafy trees grew around the old man's hut.

I shall never forget my first view of the mountains.

The clouds around the setting sun look cold and gray.

The sweet breath of the roses floated upward like a prayer.

The stormy winds of autumn shook the red leaves down.

The fagot's crack and the clock's dull tick are the only sounds I hear.

Around her bright and lovely face
Fell waves of auburn hair.

A beautiful boy, with forehead fair,
And earnest eyes, and dark-brown hair,
Arose with the early morning light.

COMMON FAULTS OF SPEECH.

WORDS AND PHRASES.

Lesson 178.—*Explain why it would be wrong to use words in parenthesis:—*

The soldier died *of* fever. (Not *with* fever.)

He seldom *if* ever sings. (Not seldom or *never*.)

Rain is seldom *if ever* known in Egypt.

I *suppose* that he arrived safe. (Not *expect*.)

I *expect* to leave to-morrow.

I see him *almost* every day. (Not *most*.)

The fire is *almost* out.

He is *ill* able to bear the loss. (Not *illy* able.)

Mary *likes* apples and cakes. (Not *loves*.)

A child *loves* his parents. (Not *likes*.)

We should *love* honor and truth.

These two books are *alike*. (Not *both alike*.)

He is *so* good a man. (Not *such a* good man.)

The man sold his goods *by* auction. (Not *at*.)

You should *inform* yourself. (Not *post*.)

He was well *informed*, etc. (Not *posted*.)

Do you think melons are *wholesome*? (Not *healthy*.)

Stay during the *remainder* of the day. (Not *balance*.)

Our friends are *staying* at the hotel. (Not *stopping*.)

He is *somewhat* better. (Not *some*.)

He put *some* sugar in his coffee.

This is equally good. (Not *equally as* good.)

He is *very* angry. (Not *real* angry.)

How do you do? *Well*. (Not *nicely*.)

I have *fewer* apples than you. (Not *less*.)

Lesson 179.—*Care should be used in speaking and writing the common contractions. Why would it be wrong to use "don't" for "does n't," "ain't" for "is n't" or "are n't," and "hain't" for "has n't" or "have n't" in the following sentences?—*

It *isn't* six yet.
 I *don't* like him.
 He *does n't* sing well.
 The sun *hasn't* risen.
 They *aren't* ready to go.
 They *haven't* recited well.

Avoid the use of unnecessary words and phrases. A *Well!* or an *Oh!* or a *Say!* are unmeaning exclamations. “Well, I don’t think so,” means the same as “I don’t think so.” “Say, will you go?” would be better, “Will you go?” We frequently hear such expressions as “I have got it,” “Where is he going to?” “Where is my book at?” when “I have it,” “Where is he going?” “Where is my book?” are meant.

“You know,” “you understand,” “says he,” or “said I,” add neither force nor clearness to a sentence.

Lesson 180.—*Which of the following sentences affirm equality? Which deny equality?—*

Charles is *as* rich *as* his brother.
 He is not *so* learned *as* his brother.
 Mary is *as* pretty *as* her sister.
 She is not *so* amiable *as* her sister.

In affirming equality, *as* should be used; in denying equality, *so* should be used.

ENLARGED SENTENCE-FORMS.

KINDS OF CLAUSES.

Lesson 181.—*Adjective Clauses.*

Fragrant flowers grow in the garden.

Flowers which are fragrant grow in the garden.

What is the use of the word *fragrant* in the first sentence? Since it describes the flowers, what kind of word is it?

Does the second sentence mean the same as the first? What words have been used instead of *fragrant*? What parts has "which are fragrant"? A part of a sentence having a subject and predicate is called what? (A sentence or clause.) As it has the force of an *adjective*, it is what kind of clause?

The subject may be enlarged by an adjective clause.

Name the adjective clauses in the following sentences. To what does each belong?—

The girl that is polite has friends.

The boy who studies will improve.

The man who is learned is respected.

The horse which moves gracefully is admired.

The merchant who acts honorably obtains credit.

Lesson 182.—*Adjective Clauses—Continued.*

He rewarded the studious boy.

He rewarded the boy who was studious.

The word *studious* describes what? It is therefore what kind of word?

In the second sentence, what has been substituted for *studious*? As *who was studious* takes the place of an adjective, it is what kind of clause?

The object may be enlarged by an adjective clause.

They sailed in a boat they had made.

He came to a brook where clear water flowed.

Name the clause in the first sentence. "They had made" qualifies what? It is what kind of clause?

Name the clause in the second sentence. "Where clear water flowed" qualifies what? It is what kind of clause?

The extension of the predicate may be enlarged by an adjective clause.

Lesson 183.—*Name the adjective clauses in the following sentences, and tell to what each belongs:—*

He laughs best who laughs last.

They saw the clouds that floated by.

Have you read the book which I gave you?

I know a bank where the wild thyme grows.

I plucked a flower which grew in the garden.

They possess all those comforts which we enjoy.

He's a good man whom fortune makes better.

Lesson 184.—Adverbial Clauses.

The boys spoke truthfully.

The boys spoke as truthful boys should speak.

Truthfully modifies what? It is what kind of word? What takes its place in the second sentence? Is "as truthful boys should speak" a sentence? Why? It has the force of what? It is therefore what kind of sentence?

The predicate may be extended by an adverb sentence or clause.

Name the adverbial clause in each of the following sentences, and state whether it denotes time, place, manner, cause, or purpose:—

He ran as fast as he could.

I could not go because it rained.

We will start when the rain ceases.

The grass grew where the sun shone.

He studied hard, that he might excel.

Lesson 185.—Noun Clauses.

Success is certain.

That we shall succeed is certain.

What is the *subject* of the first sentence? What kind of word is it?

In the second sentence, what takes the place of *success*? "That we shall succeed" is what part, then, of the sentence? Is "that we shall succeed" a sentence?

What is its subject? What, its predicate? Because it is a *sentence*, used in place of a *noun*, it is what kind of sentence or clause?

I knew my brother.

I know that he was my brother.

What is the object of the first sentence? What kind of word is it?

In the second sentence, what is substituted for the word *brother*? "That he was my brother" forms what part of the sentence? Is the new object a sentence? Why?

Because it is a sentence, and used in place of a *noun*, it is what kind of sentence or clause?

Lesson 186.—*Make sentences with adjective clauses qualifying,—*

The subject.

The object.

The predicate noun.

The noun in extension of predicate.

Make sentences with adverbial clauses,—

Of time.

Of place.

Of manner.

Of cause.

Make sentences with noun clauses,—

In the subject.

In the object.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

Lesson 187.—*Kinds of Clauses.*

The boy who studies will improve.

The boy spoke as boys should speak.

That we shall succeed is certain.

How many separate sentences in the first sentence? Which makes sense *by itself*? Which has no meaning *alone*? Are they of equal importance?

How many sentences in the second sentence? Does each make sense alone? Which does? Which does not? Which is, therefore, the more important sentence?

The more important sentence is called the *principal clause*, and the less important the *subordinate clause*.

In the third sentence find a clause that does not make complete sense of itself. "That we shall succeed" is what,—the principal or subordinate clause?

Now name the three subordinate clauses in the preceding sentences.

What does the clause "who studies" modify? It is what kind of clause?

"As boys should speak" modifies what? It is what kind of clause?

"That we shall succeed" forms what of the principal (whole) sentence? It is what kind of clause?

Subordinate clauses are of three kinds: *adjective*, *adverbial*, and *noun* clauses.

A sentence which contains a principal clause, and one or more subordinate clauses, is called a *complex sentence*.

A conjunction which connects a dependent part of a sentence to the principal part is called a *subordinate conjunction*.

Lesson 188.—*Complex Sentences.*

I will go if he needs me.

He lived as a king might live.

Wisdom is better than riches (are).

The fleet sailed when night came on.

The tent stands where the willows grow.

When Cæsar had arrived, the battle began.

He leadeth my soul where the still waters flow.

If we do not work, our muscles will become weak.

The tree which I showed you, still lies where it fell.

The horses were firmly tied lest they should break away.

We obey the laws of society, because they are the laws of virtue.

Language was given us that we might say pleasant things to each other.

Mention the adjective clauses in the preceding sentences. The adverbial. To what word does each clause belong? What word connects each subordinate clause to the other part of the sentence?

Which clause expresses time? Place? Manner? Condition? Reason or cause? Comparison? Purpose?

Notice the punctuation in the following examples. Clauses out of the natural order are usually separated from the rest of the sentence by commas:—

Where you go, I will go.
 As you journey, sweetly sing.
 If the day is pleasant, we must depart.
 When the frosts come, the leaves will fall.
 Though the water is deep, there is no danger.

Lesson 189.—Order of Clauses.

Improve these sentences by placing clauses as near as possible to the words with which they are connected:—

EXAMPLE.—He leaped from the fortifications when he had said these words, and rushed into the midst of the enemy.

CHANGED.—When he had said these words, he leaped from the fortifications, and rushed into the midst of the enemy.

That the winter time will not last forever *the sparrow knows.*

The vessel failed to make its appearance *for whose arrival all anxiously waited.*

Springs are called intermitting *which do not constantly flow.*

Since we can not control them, we should accommodate ourselves to circumstances.

The man is the most likely to succeed *who is diligent.*

The greater part of the flowers have disappeared, *which then beautified the garden.*

She walked with the lamp across the room *still burning*.

The ants may be considered a little commonwealth, *as well as the bees*.

A modern newspaper statement would be laughed at if quoted as testimony, *though probably true*.

We have a school-house sufficiently large to accommodate five hundred pupils, *three stories high*.

Lesson 190.—Write complex sentences containing,—

A clause introduced by *who*, *which*, or *that*.

A clause introduced by *when*, *where*, *why*, *while*, or *how*.

A clause introduced by *if*, *because*, *than*, *that*, or *as*.

Lesson 191.—Contracted Sentences.

The subordinate clause can often be shortened, the omission being called an ELLIPSIS. Explain the ellipsis in the following sentences:—

I am younger than he (is).

If (it is) possible I will go.

He went as far as Boston (is far).

Though (he was) poor, he was honest.

That ship, when (it is) finished, will sail.

The house (which is) there is a church.

The bird (which was) in the tree has flown.

While (he was) walking, he met his brother.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

Lesson 192.—*Example for Study.*

God made the country.

Man made the town.

The preceding sentences are independent of each other; that is, each makes sense by itself.

The two sentences may be joined together thus:—

God made the country, *and* man made the town.

A sentence formed by combining two (or more) independent sentences is called a *compound sentence*.

Each distinct sentence of a compound sentence is called a *clause*.

Clauses are said to be co-ordinate (equal in importance) when neither qualifies the other.

Co-ordinate clauses are generally joined by co-ordinate conjunctions: *and, but, or, nor*.

The connecting word is sometimes omitted; as, “Straws swim on the surface; pearls lie at the bottom.”

Sometimes the connecting word is a relative pronoun; as, “I offered him a drink, which (and this) he refused.” The clause “which he refused” does not define “a drink,” but makes another statement.

A compound sentence may be made by connecting, instead of simple sentences, a simple and a complex sentence, or two or more complex sentences; as, “He was a good man, and he left behind an influence that told on the actions of men”; “The landscape that fills the traveler with rapture is regarded with indifference by him who sees it every day from his windows.”

Lesson 193.—*Compound sentences are often contracted as follows:—*

I can sing, and I can play.
 Do you ride, or do you walk?
 Sarah studies, and Clara studies.
 James is poor, but he is honest.
 Charles skates, and John skates.
 He raises corn, and he raises wheat.
 He must not come, and they must not come.

Sarah and Clara study. (Compound subject.)
 I can sing and play. (Compound predicate.)
 Do you ride or walk?
 James is poor, but honest.
 Both Charles and John skate.
 He raises corn and wheat. (Compound object.)
 Neither he nor they must come.

Lesson 194.—*Supply the ellipsis in the following sentences:—*

The sky is bright and [] clear.
 He was courageous, but [] not prudent.
 It is better to suffer wrong than [] to do wrong.

Do not look for wrong and evil [];
 You will find them if you do [].

Write sentences containing,—

- A compound subject.
- A compound predicate.
- A compound object.

THE STUDY OF WORDS AND SENTENCES.

SELECTIONS.

Lesson 195.—*The Violet.*

Down in a green and shady bed
A modest violet grew;
Its stalk was bent, it hung its head,
As if to hide from view.

And yet it was a lovely flower,
Its colors bright and fair;
It might have graced a rosy bower
Instead of hiding there.

Yet there it was content to bloom,
In modest tints arrayed;
And there diffused its sweet perfume
Within the silent shade.

Then let me to the valley go,
This pretty flower to see,
That I may also learn to grow
In sweet humility.

JANE TAYLOR.

First Stanza.—The first two verses together make a statement.

Of what does the poet speak? (Subject.)
What does she say of it? (Predicate.)
What is told by “down in a green and shady bed”?
Find subjects for *was bent* and *hung*.

The fourth verse is a contraction of "As if it would hide from view," an adverbial clause modifying the bending and hanging by expressing manner.

Second Stanza.—The first and second verses form what kind of sentence?

Was flower has what for subject?

Supply the omission in the second verse.

What is the predicate of *colors*?

The third and fourth verses form what kind of sentence?

"Might have graced" what?

Is the phrase "instead of hiding there" adjective or adverbial?

Find an equivalent phrase for "instead of."

Make a similar analysis of the third and fourth stanzas.

Lesson 196.—*Office of the Words.*

What word points to a particular violet?

What word describes the violet?

What word shows that the violet grew in a low, humble position?

What word puts *bed* in relation to *grew*?

What words describe the *bed*?

What words refer to *violet*?

What word is the general name for the stem of a plant?

Yet is equivalent to *in spite of that*.

State the office of each word in the second stanza.

What is the meaning, as used in the poem, of,—

down	sweet	view	lovely
graced	bower	content	arranged
diffused	modest	perfume	humility

Lesson 197.—*Study the remaining stanzas in the same way. Write the poem in your own words, following this outline:—*

LOCATION.

APPEARANCE . . . { Stalk,
Head,
Colors,
Perfume.

LESSON TAUGHT.

Lesson 198.—*The House in the Meadow.*

It stands in a sunny meadow,

The house, so mossy and brown,
With its cumbrous old stone chimneys,
And the gray roof sloping down.

The trees fold their green arms around it—

The trees a century old—

And the winds go chanting through them,
And the sunbeams drop their gold.

The cowslips spring in the marshes,

The roses bloom on the hill,

And beside the brook in the pasture,

The herds go feeding at will.

First Stanza.—What kind of sentence is the first stanza?

Of what subject is *stands* predicated?

What is told by “so mossy and brown”?

The third and fourth verses tell what?

Supply the ellipsis in the fourth verse.

What is told by “in a sunny meadow”?

Second Stanza.—How many clauses in the second stanza? (Principal or subordinate?)

Give the subject of *fold*. Fold what? Fold how?

The second verse describes the trees by telling what?

Go is predicated of what?

Chanting and *through them* tell what?

Name the subject of *drop*. Drop what?

In the fourth verse, what is meant by “sunbeams drop their gold”?

Give the meaning of *arms* as here used.

It and *them* refer to what?

Tell how many and what kind of clauses in the third stanza.

Name the subjects of *spring*, *bloom*, and *go*.

Lesson 199.—Tell what the following phrases modify, and the idea expressed by each:—

In the marshes.

On the hill.

Beside the brook.

In the pasture.

At will.

Find equivalents for these words :—

sunny	fold	bloom	brook
mossy	marshes	sloping	herds
chanting	cumbrous	sunbeams	century

The preceding poem is a pleasant picture of an old-fashioned country-house. Try to see the picture clearly in your mind ; then write in prose what the poet has so prettily said in verse, and afterward commit the poem to memory.

Observe the order of the following points as you write :—

LOCATION.

APPEARANCE. { Chimneys,
Roof.

SURROUNDINGS. { Trees,
Marshes,
Hill,
Brook,
Pasture.

Lesson 200.—Nellie.

NELLIE sat under the apple-tree,
And watched the shadows of leaves at play,
And heard the hum of the honey-bee,
Gathering sweets through the sunny day.

Nellie's brown hands in her lap were laid ;
Her head inclined with a gentle grace ;
A wandering squirrel was not afraid
To stop and peer in her quiet face.

Nellie forgot that her dress was old,
 Her hands were rough and her feet were bare;
 For round her the sunlight poured its gold,
 And her cheeks were kissed by the summer air.

And the distant hills in their glory lay,
 And soft to her ear came the robin's call;
 'Twas sweet to live on that summer day,
 For the smile of God was over all.

First Stanza.—Find a subject for *sat*. Supply subjects for *watched* and *heard*.

“Under the apple-tree” tells what?
 Watched what? What is meant by “leaves at play”?
 “Of leaves” and “at play” tell what?
 Heard what? “Of the honey-bee” tells what?
 Ask and answer the questions *what* and *when* after *gathering*.

“Gathering sweets” pictures the bees’ condition.
 What relation is shown by *under*, *of*, *at*, *through*?

Second Stanza.—How many distinct clauses in the second stanza?

Name the subject of each. The predicate.
 Which phrases answer the question *where*?
 Which tells manner?
 “To stop” and (to) *peer* modify what? In what manner?

Supply a conjunction after *laid* and *grace*.

Third Stanza.—Forgot what? (Three answers.)
 Name the noun clauses. Why called clauses? Why *noun* clauses?
 Of what is “was old,” “were rough,” and “were

“bare” predicated? *Old, rough, and bare* are what parts of speech? They qualify what?

Which clauses state the reason or cause of Nellie’s forgetting?

Explain “the sunlight poured its gold” and “kissed by the summer air.”

Fourth Stanza.—Transpose the sentence in the first verse. In the second verse. Name the subject and predicate of each sentence. Which phrase answers the question how? When? Where? What clause expresses reason?

Lesson 201.—The selection we have been studying is a beautiful example of descriptive poetry. Have you the scenes clearly in your mind, as the poet had when he described them? If so, reproduce the picture they make in your own words, so that others may also see it distinctly.

The following outline will assist you in writing:—

POSITION.

OCCUPATION.

DESCRIPTION. { Hands,
Head,
Face,
Dress,
Hills,
Robin’s call.

CONCLUSION.

Study the following selections as you have the previous ones. Find the subject and predicate of each sentence; determine the office of each subordinate clause, phrase, and word. Try to make the ideas of the author your own, then reproduce them in your own words, making an outline before beginning to write.

The memorizing of such poetry as has been selected for study will tend to secure readiness and correctness in expression, and a taste for what is good and pure in literature.

Lesson 202.—*Perseverance.*

A SWALLOW in the spring

Came to our granary, and 'neath the eaves
Essayed to make a nest, and there did bring
Wet earth and straw and leaves.

Day after day she toiled

With patient art, but ere her work was crowned,
Some sad mishap the tiny fabric spoiled,
And dashed it to the ground.

She found the ruin wrought,

But, not cast down, forth from the place she flew,
And, with her mate, fresh earth and grasses brought
And built her nest anew.

But scarcely had she placed

The last soft feather on its ample floor,
When wicked hand, or chance, again laid waste,
And wrought the ruin o'er.

But still her heart she kept,
And toiled again; and last night, hearing calls,
I looked—and, lo! three little swallows slept
Within the earth-made walls.

Lesson 203.—*Kindly Winter.*

THE snow lies deep upon the ground;
In coat of mail the pools are bound;
The hungry rooks in squadrons fly,
And winds are slumbering in the sky.

Drowsily the snow-flakes fall;
The robin on the garden-wall
Looks wistful at our window-pane,
The customary crumb to gain.

But naught care we, though o'er the world
The winter lays his winter cold;
We still enjoy the roughest day,
And find December good as May.

Pile up the fire! The winter wind,
Although it nip, is not unkind;
And dark midwinter days can bring
As many pleasures as the spring.

Lesson 204.—*The Brook.*

I COME from haunts of coot and hern;

I make a sudden sally,

And sparkle out among the fern,

To bicker down the valley.

I chatter over stony ways,

In little sharps and trebles;

I bubble into eddying bays;

I babble on the pebbles.

I steal by lawns and grassy plots;

I slide by hazel covers;

I move the sweet forget-me-nots,

That grow for happy lovers.

And out again I curve and flow

To join the brimming river;

For men may come, and men may go,

But I go on forever.

TENNYSON.

Lesson 205.—*June.*

THE trees are now in their fullest foliage and brightest verdure; the woods are gay with the clustered flowers of the laurel; the air is perfumed with the sweet-briar and the wild rose; the meadows are enamelled with clover blossoms, while the young apple, peach, and the plum begin to swell, and the cherry to glow among the green leaves.

IRVING.

Lesson 206.—*Winter.*

LOOK out of the window some cold, frosty morning in winter at the little brook, which yesterday was flowing gently past the house, and see how still it lies, with the stones over which it was dashing now held tightly in its icy grasp. Notice the wind-ripples on the pond. A few hours ago they were dancing in the sunlight. Now they are bound with fetters of ice. It will be long before the brook will go rippling on again, and before the warm sunshine will bring back life and beauty.

Lesson 207.—*Spring.*

THE birds begin to sing; they utter a few rapturous notes, and then wait for an answer in the silent woods. Those green-coated musicians, the frogs, make holiday in the neighboring marshes. They, too, belong to the orchestra of Nature, whose vast theater is again opened, though the doors have been so long bolted with icicles, and the scenery hung with snow and frost like cobwebs.

The May-flowers open their soft blue eyes. Children are let loose in the fields and gardens. They hold buttercups under each other's chins to see if they love butter. And the little girls adorn themselves with chains and curls of dandelions; pull out the yellow leaves to see if the school-boy loves them, and blow the down from the leafless stalk, to find out if their mothers want them at home.

LONGFELLOW.

SYNTHESIS AND VARIETY.

COMBINATION OF SENTENCES.

Much variety of expression may be given to the same thought. These examples will serve as models:—

Lesson 208.—*Simple statements Combined.*

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow was born in 1807.

He was born in Portland, Maine.

He is the most popular of American poets.

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, the most popular of American poets, was born in Portland, Maine, in 1807.

God is our refuge.

For that reason we will not fear.

God is our refuge; therefore we will not fear.

Cotton is grown largely in India and Egypt. The finest kind is obtained from America.

Cotton is grown largely in India and Egypt, but the finest kind is obtained from America.

The Jordan rises in Lebanon.

It flows into the Dead Sea.

The Jordan rises in Lebanon, and flows into the Dead Sea.

The Jordan, which rises in Lebanon, flows into the Dead Sea.

The boy was exhausted.

He lay down to rest.

The boy was exhausted, and lay down to rest.

The boy, who was exhausted, lay down to rest.

The boy, when he was exhausted, lay down to rest.

Lesson 209.—*Separate Statements for Combination.*

The boy is industrious. He is worthy of promotion.

The crew got safe to land. The crew had been enduring great suffering for three weeks.

The army assaulted the city. The assault took place by sea and land. The assault took place at day-break.

The pupils have finished their tasks. They are allowed to play.

The lion is found in Africa. The lion is found in Asia. During the day the lion slumbers in his retreat. Night sets in. He then rouses himself from his lair. He then begins to prowl. In general he waits in ambush. Sometimes, however, he creeps toward his victim and seizes it with his powerful claws.

The silk-worm is a kind of caterpillar. It belongs to the insect tribe. It feeds upon the leaves of the mulberry-tree.

Gold is a precious metal. It is found in many parts of the world. It is most abundant in California and Australia. Its color is bright and yellow. It is nearly as soft as lead.

Cotton is a soft, white substance. It grows in the pod of a plant. It is gathered from the pod. It is cleaned from the seed. It is sent to the manufacturer. He makes it into thread or yarn. He also makes it into cloth. He does this by the help of machinery.

The owl conceals itself in the hollows of old trees. It conceals itself in barns. It conceals itself in hay-

lofts. Toward twilight it quits its perch. It takes a circuit round the fields. It skims along the ground in quest of mice. It skims along the ground in quest of rats. It skims along in quest of moles and large insects. It seizes its prey. It returns with it in its claws. The owl is thus of great utility. It destroys an enormous quantity of mice. It destroys an enormous quantity of other vermin. These would otherwise do great damage.

A hungry dog had picked up a bone. He hurried away with it. He came to a nice clear brook. The brook was crossed by a plank. The sun shone bright. The dog saw his shadow in the water. He mistook it for another dog with a bone in his mouth. He coveted the second bone. He made a snap at the shadow. He took fright at his own ugly face. The face seemed to come quite close to him, with open jaws. He ran yelping away. He lost both bones. He was thus the victim of his own greediness. He was thus the victim of his own cowardice.

A crow was almost dying with thirst. He saw a pitcher at some distance. He flew with joy to it. He found water in it. It was near the bottom. With all his stooping and stretching he was not able to reach it. He tried to overturn the pitcher. His strength was not sufficient for this. At last he saw some pebbles lying near. He dropped them, one by one, into the pitcher. Thus, by degrees, he raised the water up to the very brim. He satisfied his thirst.



